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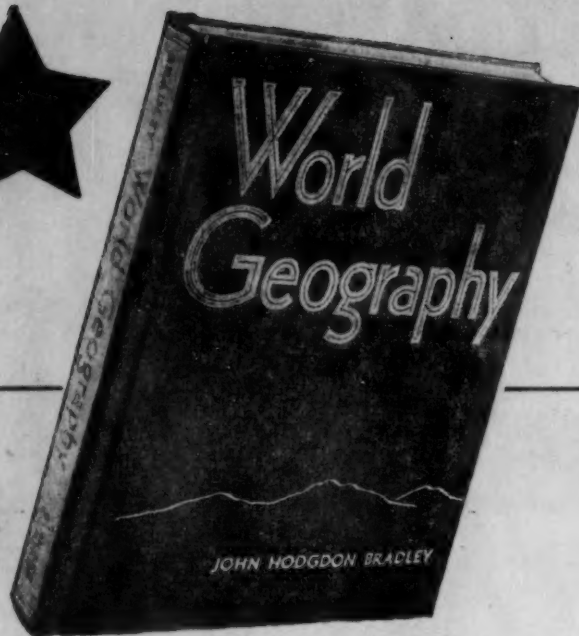
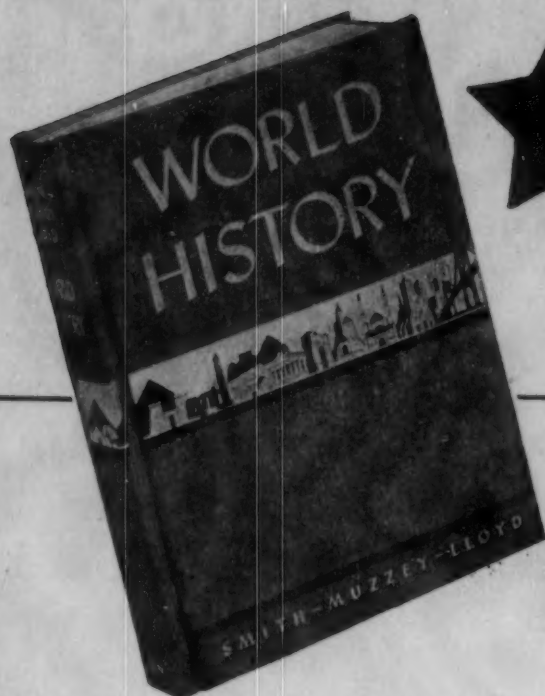
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SOCIAL EDUCATION

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MARCH, 1948

PUBLISHED BY THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
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SOCIAL EDUCATION

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THE WORLD'S HISTORY

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Editor's Page

WHAT IS NEEDED?

WHERE, in the last resort, shall man find security? Shall he follow the guidance of moral principles, or shall he use the sword to gain his ends? The problem is as old as human history. Handed down from one generation to the next, this is now our problem. The assassination of Mohandas K. Gandhi was merely one of the latest chapters in the age-old struggle between moral principles and blind force. Tragic indeed is the sudden death of this world figure who lived by the faith that burned within him. Even more tragic is the unresolved conflict, symbolized by this saintly man of principles on one hand and the smoking gun of an assassin on the other, which now threatens to tear the fabric of Western civilization into shreds.

The invention of the atomic bomb confronts mankind with the terrible urgency of solving this as yet unresolved conflict. The mind and the spirit must triumph or the human race will perish. Only when all men live under laws rooted in justice will the shadow of fear move from the face of the earth.

These are decisive days. The time is short. How short, we do not know. To say that Western civilization *will not* survive another war is to ignore the possibility that it *may not* have survived the world conflicts of 1914-1918 and 1939-1945.

A story, born in the trench warfare of World War I, may be relevant to the situation in which we now find ourselves. It seems that one group of Allied soldiers was particularly adept in the use of knives. With what we might consider misdirected pride, they spent hours of patient, skillful labor honing their weapons until they had an edge sharper than the sharpest razor. One night, along a sector of the front where the German and Allied trenches ran an arms length from each other, an Allied soldier peered over the parapet into the blackness. Something moved. Grasping his knife firmly, he made a lightning sweep with his arm. Back from the enemy trench, in guttural accents, came a mocking reply, "You missed me!" "Oh, yeah?" retorted the knife-wielder. "You're an optimist. Just try to shake your head."

Could it be that we, like the German in our story, are living in an illusory optimism? Could it be that the prophets of doom—and there were

many such in the generation that now lies behind us—were right when they warned in the 1920's and the 1930's that World War II would destroy Western civilization? The fact that we walk and talk in long-established ways means little if the political, economic, social, religious, and moral foundations of our world have already begun to crumble. "Spiritually and morally, civilization collapsed on August 1, 1914. . . ." wrote Elmer Davis in 1938 (*Harper's Magazine*, March, 1938). "But the collapse of a great culture is a long process; it took the Roman world four or five centuries to hit bottom. Since 1914 we have slipped back as far perhaps as the Romans slipped between the Antonine age and the days of Alexander Severus. It is a long way. . . . The next war might shock the human race back into sanity; it is more likely to leave all nations coarsened and barbarized still further."

The "next war" to which Elmer Davis referred has reduced much of the world to a shambles haunted by greed and human misery. Materially and morally, Western civilization is in a desperate condition. When disease and pain gnaw at a person's vitals, reason sends him to a medical doctor for diagnosis and treatment even for surgery. Sometimes the diagnosis ends in a single word, "incurable." We have no reason to assume that the ills of mankind are beyond repair, but the symptoms of ill-health are so prevalent that intelligent men will do everything within their power to facilitate diagnosis and the application of remedial measures.

What are the diseases from which Western civilization suffers? What are the remedies? What are the responsibilities of the social scientist? Of the teachers? Of the students in our schools?

Admitting that even the wisest of men can give but inadequate answers, we nevertheless venture to suggest that questions of this type are proper subjects for at least an occasional classroom discussion. Thoughtful discussion arouses an awareness and stimulates the refinement of values, and these are the essence of education.

Editor's note: We should like in the next issue or two of the magazine to publish a few brief answers to these questions. Confine your remarks to not more than four hundred words, and we shall try to include in forthcoming issues of the magazine those replies of greatest interest to readers.

Teaching With Pictures

Edgar Dale

WE'VE all had students who "read" an assignment and didn't know what it meant. They could "say" the words but they couldn't "see" their meaning. A good reader ought to be able not only to recognize the printed symbols but also to have a clear grasp of their meaning. A history textbook, for example, said that a certain document was printed on vellum, and members of the class "read" this fact and so reported in class. But not one of them knew what vellum was.

Sometimes we read a mistaken meaning into a word, like the boy in Zanesville, Ohio, who thought that swine was the plural for swan. Certainly the boy who read that the king had an *abbess* on his knee needed a little visual education.

There is nothing very complicated about the way we get our understanding of persons, animals, or things. Sometimes we experience them at first hand. We see, or feel, or hear, or smell, or taste them. We are quite sure, therefore, what water is, and we are familiar with the characteristics of a skunk or the qualities of a rose. But many things are not met at firsthand. A boy in England might not have seen a skunk. Some things are distant in time or space and we must meet them secondhand. Most of us knew what an elephant looked like before we ever saw one. We probably saw the Rocky Mountains, or the New York skyline, or wheat raising in the Middle West in a picture before we saw the real thing—unless, of course, we live in one of these places. The Eiffel Tower, London Bridge and the Swiss Alps are not new to those travelers who saw them first in a picture. A picture, then, may be a substitute for the real thing.

But sometimes we have seen the real thing and use a picture as a reminder, or for further study.

The author of this article is a professor of education and head of the Curriculum Division, Bureau of Educational Research, at Ohio State University. One of the nation's outstanding authorities in the field of audio-visual aids, Dr. Dale needs no introduction to the readers of *Social Education*.

It helps to sharpen our memory of places we have visited or things we have studied. We use the picture to reconstruct or to recreate an experience, much as we look over our snapshots of a trip.

When can we use a picture as a substitute experience? We can do this if we have enough related experience to understand the picture. Some children who have not seen a cow think that it is about the same size as a mouse. And, indeed, in some of their books the pictures of the mouse and the cow are almost equal in size. Thus, when we are getting a new experience we need to have some of the older experiences tied in with it in order to understand it.

We can do three things in "reading" a picture. We can simply enumerate the objects in it. We can say: "I see a grass hut. There are four people in front of it." Or we can go beyond this and describe what the people are doing. Or we can go still further and interpret what we see.

TO interpret a picture, and this is our chief interest, we must infer certain things that may not be visually present. Certain things are filled in from our own experience. We infer that the climate is a wet one because of the sharp slope of the roof; that the agricultural methods are advanced because there is a tractor in the picture. Some of these deductions are very simple; some are complicated.

So meaning must be put *into* the picture to get meaning *out of* it. A geographer, a biologist, a sociologist, and a farmer would see some common things and some different things in a picture showing a farm scene in China. A child who has not had the experience of seeing a pioneer flatboat, or a model, or a picture of one, finds it impossible to put much real meaning into the word *flatboat* used in his history book. The word is "empty" until it is "filled" by seeing a picture, or by some other similar experience. An Indiana county superintendent, who found a class studying the ocean liner, "The Queen Mary," in connection with a unit on transportation, asked how many of the members of the class had ever been in a rowboat. About two-thirds had never been in a rowboat, although the Tippecanoe River was only a mile away.

WHY WE USE PICTURES

HERE are some of the ways we might use pictures in the meaningful manner just suggested. They are not all different ways; some of them are quite closely related.

1. *To brighten up our classrooms.* Too many classrooms are drab and dreary. A weekly or bi-weekly exhibit of pictures on the classroom walls will change the tone of the room. Let committees of pupils be responsible for the exhibit and tie it in as closely as possible to units that are being studied. Make the display an artful one. Good, pleasing arrangements are necessary. A catchy, appropriate headline for the whole display would be helpful. Don't use too many pictures. Use a few pictures. Display them skillfully.

2. *For careful study.* Children may find answers to certain questions more readily in pictures than in written material. A written description of soap-making in colonial days, or of the process of spinning, lacks the important details to be found in good pictures of these processes. Teachers can encourage children to find answers to their questions by consulting pictures. Children may prepare good questions to ask other members of the class. Remember that one mark of the educated person is the ability to ask intelligent, answerable questions.

3. *To increase pupil participation.* It is easy to get pupil participation with pictures. Children will readily talk about an excellent picture. There can be excellent discussions about pictures and their meaning. A pupil reporting to a class may choose a few pictures for illustrating his report. He may say: "I've told you about how wheat was harvested with a cradle in pioneer days. Here is a picture showing how they used the cradle, and what it looked like."

4. *To introduce a subject and arouse interest.* A few good pictures of life in India will help to interest pupils in that country. Keen interest results in a desire to read, find out, do, and make.

5. *To bring the outside world into the classroom.* The school was once thought of as a place in which the children unthinkingly memorized certain facts and practiced certain skills. There was little teaching material which could be used for creating a rich classroom environment or for bringing the outside world into the classroom. Now we think of a school as a group of children with a leader whom we call the teacher, whose job it is to help create a rich, educational environment. The teacher tries to bring the local community, the state, the nation, and the whole out-

side world into the classroom, hoping to broaden and deepen the children's experience.

If we are to bring the world to the children, we must use pictures. In geography textbooks, we may find only five or six pages devoted to the territory of Alaska, and about as many pictures. This is because the textbook, of necessity, must be limited in size. The publisher would like to include more pictures and do more visual teaching in the books he publishes, but the cost would be too high. An adequately illustrated geography book of two thousand pages might cost as much as ten dollars. An excellent file of well-selected pictures in the classroom, however, makes it possible to provide rich learning experiences that would otherwise be impossible to get.

6. *To enrich reading.* Still pictures are so inexpensive that any teacher or school can afford to provide an abundant supply. Pictures can make new words meaningful. They can turn the word pictures of the textbook into concrete visual pictures. Pictures are an excellent supplement to assigned reading.

7. *To correct wrong impressions.* Every child has many mistaken impressions of geography, history, and other subjects. There are hundreds of words in his textbooks which he fails to understand and which result in mistaken impressions that confuse and discourage further progress. Well-selected and well-printed pictures help prevent this condition.

8. *To increase retention of what is taught.* The cost of forgotten learning amounts to millions of dollars annually. Think of the millions of classroom hours that are wasted because of ineffective learning and because of forgetting what was poorly learned. *Why do my pupils retain so little of what I try to teach them?* This is a question that has been asked by thousands of teachers. Many a conscientious pupil has asked, "Why do I forget so much of what I am supposed to learn?"

Scientific studies and abundant classroom experience prove beyond doubt the value of audio-visual methods of instruction in reducing forgetting and in making learning more permanent. From such studies and experience, we can make these generalizations about forgetting:

- a) We tend to forget when we do not clearly understand that which we are supposed to learn. Pictures can help the student to see that which might otherwise remain abstract. They translate abstract word symbols into concrete pictures. The viewing and discussing of well-chosen pictures enable the child

more easily to understand whatever he is supposed to learn.

- b) We tend to forget that which does not seem important to us. Pictures can build interest and demonstrate the importance of understanding what is being studied. Pictures make events seem more real and therefore more important. In addition, they may tie up the old to the new, the known to the unknown.
- c) We tend to forget what we don't use in daily living. Because pictures help make events seem real, they relate the things studied in the classroom to real experiences of real people in daily life. For example, in a study of Canada, the child, by means of good pictures, may be taken on a sight-seeing tour where he sees in the pictures interesting customs, events, and places which he hopes to visit personally with his family. He may use this information in life outside the classroom. He may talk with his father and classmates about these interesting things that he may see in Canada. The pictures of real events, real places, real people, and real customs in Canada provide a type of concrete information to be used *now* in planning the hoped-for trip.

HOW TO USE PICTURES

ARE the suggested values of pictures just stated denied by some teachers? I think not. Most teachers would agree with what has been said. But verbal agreement and classroom practice are two different things. If pictures are to be used effectively in the classroom, certain conditions must be present.

The pictures must be easily available when needed. They must be filed so that the needed pictures can be found at once. Pictures that are

filed in the classroom where they can be used at a moment's notice are many times more valuable to the teacher and class than those in some other part of the building. Anyone who doubts this need only ask himself these questions: Would maps and globes be used daily, as they are in most social studies classrooms, if it were necessary for the teacher to *borrow* them at frequent intervals from the library or the principal's office? If a teacher needed to plan ahead in regard to the particular maps he would be using each day of the month and needed to go to another part of the building in advance to *borrow* them, would he be able to use maps daily in an inspirational manner, and would he usually have the maps that he needed for use at a moment's notice? It is the particular problem at hand at a particular moment that suggests to a good teacher the time for using a certain map or picture showing the desired information. When the teacher needs to show what Canada looks like, he should be able to produce a good map instantly. When he wants to show how the people in Canada live, he should also be able to produce a good selection of pictures just as easily. It is important that pictures be in the classroom for instant use as the occasion demands. It is often just as unfortunate a mistake to store pictures outside of the classroom as it is to store maps in the principal's office.

In addition to availability, the pictures in the classroom collection must be clear, accurate and easily understood. There should be descriptive material accompanying the pictures so that relevant information is at hand. The pictures should be printed on stock that can stand wear.

All of us like to look at pictures. As teachers we must capitalize on this interest and provide for our school an ample supply of excellent, informative picture materials.

... the proper use of pictures can short-cut the learning process by many class room hours. Take the example of teaching good will between the United States and Latin America. The average student can read endlessly about the comparative cultures, customs and industries of the two geographic and political areas and still have only a parrot-like word memory of the facts. However, the use of a flat picture collection in natural color compiled from such magazines as the *National Geographic*, *Life*, and other pictorial publications and used in a way to allow the student to study the life on an Argentine cattle ranch side by side with pictures of life on a typical Texas cattle ranch will produce a better basis for understanding the differences in those two segments of American and Argentine industry. Laying a picture of a typical Mexican farmer's home beside that of a typical American farmer's home will save hours of text-book reading to attain the same amount of understanding (Leland S. March, "Social Learning Through Pictures," in William H. Hartley, Ed., *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*. Eighteenth Yearbook. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1947. Pp. 83-84).

What Shall We Teach About Russia?

William H. E. Johnson

WHAT shall we teach about Russia now? This question might well be expanded to embrace also the queries of *WHY* should we teach about Russia at all, and *HOW* such teaching should be carried on. Each subject in the curriculum must have a definite purpose, and the method of teaching a course is sometimes just as important as the content. We can let the answers to the questions of *WHY* and *HOW* serve as an introduction to the main problem of *WHAT*.

WHY SHOULD WE TEACH ABOUT RUSSIA?

IN regard to the *WHY*, we do not have to search far for our answers. Our wish, as teachers of the social sciences, is to provide our students with a truly broad social education, an education that will enable them to understand themselves, their community, their nation, and their world. The American people should study not only about Russia, but also about Latin America, Canada, Australia, Asia and Europe. Materially and physically, the several continents and the various nations of our world are being tied more closely together. If we wish the spiritual and cultural ideas of humanism and democracy to prevail, we cannot permit these ties to remain largely material—we must supplement them with channels of expression and information.

The leadership of the United States in this new world is much greater than ever before, and it is capable of even further growth. The responsibilities of this leadership, however, are still unrecognized, or unfelt, by many Americans. In world economy we have passed in less than a decade from "the arsenal of democracy" to "the workshop and breadbasket of the world." The recent war demonstrated our enormous military power, and the years of peace have not dimmed the memory of that might. Although our political

influence is often denied in certain parts of the world, the very character of these denials attests to our strength. Much has also been accomplished by the United States in the field of international culture. For many years foreign students have been flocking to America to study and, before the war, the institutions composing our Near East College Association stood as intellectual citadels in the nations where they had taken root. In the two years since the termination of the war, we have established student or teacher exchanges with several countries; our cultural rehabilitation work in war-blackened areas, although advertised little, has accomplished much; and our world-wide radio programs, even in their curtailed form, have given universal dissemination to our ideals of government, public welfare, and culture. In no field of human relationships, therefore, can the United States be regarded as weak. Quantitatively, the only charge which might justifiably be made against us is that we are pulling our punches—no one doubts that the power is there.

Yet in each of these spheres of activity—economic, military, political, and cultural—the pre-eminence of the United States is challenged by Soviet Russia. Russia is second to us in industrial capacity, producing during the war 85 percent of all her wartime requirements, and even out-producing us in certain important types of military equipment. Russia today maintains the largest armed force in the world, and is our only possible rival in total military potential. Soviet political influence is supreme in a dozen nations, very strong in several others, and at least recognizable in most of the remainder. In addition, her repeated challenges to the United States in the councils of the United Nations are well known. Culturally, Russia is forceful, indoctrinistic, and self-reliant, equipped with an enormous cultural budget and an educational standard far above the majority of her neighbors.

Therefore, regardless of our diplomatic relations with Russia, it will be to our profit to study her intently. The young people in our schools today will be called on *either* to fight a war in the next two decades *or* to prevent

The author of this thought-provoking article, originally presented at the St. Louis meeting of the National Council, is an assistant professor of psychology and education at Carnegie Institute of Technology in Pittsburgh.

such a war from occurring. In either case, the United States must have an informed and intelligent foreign policy. "Study your rival" is a maxim to which both Gandhi, the pacifist, and Clausewitz, the military strategist, would agree. The fact that Russia is our present major competitor in world affairs makes it imperative that we know her weaknesses and strengths. Since our public schools are at the same time both the best manifestation of our democratic practice and the best purveyors of our democratic philosophy, it is fitting that these schools should set an example in the dissemination of information on this most crucial issue of modern times.

HOW SHALL WE TEACH ABOUT RUSSIA?

THE answer to the *HOW* is relatively simple to state in words, but not at all easy to put into practice. We must teach about Russia as we always *should* have taught, giving the facts and endeavoring to place upon these facts the correct interpretation. However, to ascertain the facts and to provide the proper elucidation on any complex subject, constitute a difficult assignment, and, in regard to Russia, the hazards are manifold in the extreme. The great dearth of dependable information on the topic is probably the first obstacle to be encountered by the assiduous teacher, although this lack is not as great as it is commonly supposed to be. The number of scientific foundations and educational institutions engaged in research on Russia has increased enormously in the past decade, and the findings of these agencies are utilized to a considerable extent in many schools. Nevertheless, no one will deny that reliable information on Russia is more difficult to locate and to select than is information on England, France, Canada, or Mexico.

In addition to this material barrier, there are others of a more ethereal—but no less real—nature. There is the danger of prejudice in regard to the subject itself, a prejudice which casts suspicion on anyone even interested in studying about Russia. A number of sincere and loyal teachers have encountered this situation personally, and many others are aware of its existence. There is the recent case of a young man in government service who was assigned to study European affairs, and cleared for security by all the proper agencies. Then he decided to improve his usefulness by a study of the Russian language at his own expense. He asked the advice of several people regarding the best type of course in which to enroll, and was advised

by most of them to avoid the subject as he would the plague. Study Russian, they said, and the mark of the beast is upon you. The man decided to join the thousands of people in America who prefer the safe study of Spanish as a basis for an understanding of Europe.

THERE is also the prospect, once the above dragon has been met and slain (or at least put to sleep), of one's motives being repeatedly misunderstood. We like to think of ourselves as objective in our reasoning, fair in our evaluations, just in our discriminations, and in most cases, correct in our conclusions. The American concept of fair play is internationally recognized, and in no country has objectivity in research been accorded higher honor. Yet what happens when this objectivity is applied to the study of Russia?

Although we know that most matters in this complex world are composed of a mixture of good and bad elements, and that true objectivity demands that we consider both, somehow the concept is growing that studies of Russia must stress only the unfavorable aspects of that subject. A speaker can say that Mussolini modernized Italy's rail transport system, that Hitler's program of public construction represented a wise expenditure of German money, and that the private life of Hirohito provided the Japanese people with a model of dignity and nobility. All this can be said and, in saying it, the speaker fortifies his reputation (even during the war) as a fair-minded scholar, a sincere truth-seeker, a viewer of both sides of the question. But what happens if a speaker declares that Stalin loves his *own* children, at least? The orator is accused of "appealing to our emotions." What if a returned traveler from Europe mentions that Russia is in no condition to carry on a major war? He is "carrying on the propaganda of the Kremlin." And even if a research scholar makes public his conclusion that the Soviet Government has provided its people with a rather good system of free medical aid, he is apt to be denounced by someone as a "fellow-traveler" or possibly as an outright "Red."

Even if the student of Russia prefaces his complimentary remarks with a castigation of communist principles, Soviet tyranny, the socialist system, and Slavs in general, his *favorable* comments about Russia are sometimes singled out as the basis for attacks on his motives, judgment, or even loyalty to his country. Note the word "sometimes"—not always or even usually.

But when a teacher weighs the problems involved in the study of Russia (or, even more, in the classroom discussion of Russia), he must take into account such risks, however remote in an actual sense. Thus, the pursuit of objectivity in our study of Russia has other aspects than mere devotion to scholarly research.

FINALLY, there is a more personal type of jeopardy, a type which might concern the small-town school teacher even more than the larger consequences of political bias and misunderstanding of motives. That danger is the one of offending personal friends. Many people will defy the mores of their society and the traditions of their community, but will think a long time before speaking the words that will terminate a deep friendship with a handful of their fellowmen. It is demonstrably true that a large number of people have come to regard the mere existence of the Soviet Union as a threat to all that they personally hold dear, and the simple mention of the word "Russia" is sufficient to send chills down their spines. We can safely proclaim our approval of the present government in Britain, or clamor for the return of Churchill to the lead. Mr. Jones can hate all three of the Soong sisters and still get along splendidly with Mrs. Jones who thinks they are dears. There are many Americans who warmly debate the Palestinian problem while thoroughly enjoying each other's company.

But Russia—that's a different question. Although Democrats and Republicans frequently find it easy to be bosom friends, the late Professor Samuel Harper found that his interest in Russia inspired his colleagues to suggest that he use only the back doors in the buildings of one of our greatest universities. Chiang's regime in China is still an academic issue, while the names of Stalin, Molotov, and Vishinsky, shouted loudly in a public place (even without verbs or adjectives), could conceivably cause a riot. And there is little doubt that the people mentioned above as amicably discussing Zionism might easily come to blows if the conversation passed to concentration camps in Siberia.

THUS, even close personal relationships are often subjected to tremendous strain by divergent views on the subject of Russia. The pro- and anti-groups form their lines, set up their barriers, consolidate their attacks—and woe betide the poor devils who have decided to play it safe by milling around in no-man's-land. That

affairs should not be thus, most of us probably agree; for such a situation cannot encourage the objective search for the truth which, as mentioned above, has been our great tradition and our great pride.

We teachers, then, must face squarely these difficulties and take one of two choices: to keep quiet about Russia and thus allow other agencies (some competent, some misguided, some malicious) to mold the minds of our youth on this question; or to ascertain and disseminate the facts about Russia, utilizing our superior resources and our unique situation to this end. Since it is probably safe to assume that most teachers of the social studies are interested to some degree in pursuing the latter course, let us proceed to the problem of *WHAT* shall we teach about Russia now.

WHAT SHALL WE TEACH ABOUT RUSSIA?

IF WE concede that we *should* study and teach about Russia because she is our strongest competitor in world affairs, and also that this study and teaching should be objective, sincere and factual, the next question obviously concerns what sort of facts should be studied and taught. Both in the selection and in the presentation of these facts, our guiding lights should be honesty and objectivity. Such beacons will at least show us where we are going, although it is admitted that they will not always illuminate the pitfalls on the way.

An article such as this cannot presume to offer a great deal of guidance on specific issues confronting the would-be teacher of Russian topics. Much depends upon the particular course in which the topic is to fit, upon the approach the teacher wishes to take, and upon the grade level with which he is dealing. Location of material is probably the initial problem; however, numerous articles on Russia are published each week, at least a dozen good books on the subject have appeared in the past year, and there are several American and British institutes devoted almost solely to gathering material on the Soviet Union. Selection of information is a more difficult task, but teachers of the social studies are certainly in a better position than most other school personnel to judge data both on the basis of fact and from the viewpoint of objectivity. Adaptation to the various grade levels is a matter to be worked out by the teacher himself, or between teachers and publishers; in either case, each item requires specific treatment. It is possible that an outline course

of study should be developed to cover the main aspects of the subject: philosophic, geographic-historical, political, economic, and social. The outline could be based upon thirty hours of classroom work at the senior high-school level, and then expanded for more advanced study, or reduced in scope and depth for the lower grades. Such a course of study would not only assist teachers in the proper presentation of information on Russia, but also in integrating this material with other work in the field of the social studies. Perhaps most important of all, the outline could serve as a guide to the teacher.

MEANWHILE, it might be of some value if this article describes a few of the concrete factors that might be considered in any attempt to present data on Russia at the senior high-school level. These suggestions will summarize a portion of the author's experience in delivering addresses on Russia to professional groups, in lecturing on the subject at several American colleges, and in teaching a series of systematic courses on the Soviet Union in a department of the United States Government. These informal comments, however, pretend neither to cover the topics adequately nor to constitute the best possible approach: they are offered merely as illustrations of how the five general aspects mentioned above can be sub-divided into more definite terms.

(1) *Philosophic.* An acquaintance with Marxian philosophy is as essential to an understanding of the Soviet Union as is a knowledge of the democratic philosophy to a comprehension of the United States. Therefore, every course on Russia should deal to some extent with this point. The teacher should show something of the historical development of the Marxian theories: how they were derived in their early stages from many of the same sources which contributed to the concepts of capitalist economy and democratic idealism. Examples in this connection are the writings of Adam Smith, David Ricardo, John Stuart Mill, and Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel; but the teacher should also point out where Marxism departs from these ideas. The influence of the early French socialists can be shown by reference to the views of the physiocrats, Charles Fourier, Saint-Simon, and Louis Blanqui. Nor should Marx's personal experiences be disregarded, for his life coincides with the development of industrial capitalism, and he resided in the three greatest nations of Europe when each was undergoing tremendous

turmoil. Marx's theories of the class struggle and the materialist conception of history are vital to the proper understanding of what is happening in the Soviet Union today, and, moreover, they afford an excellent key to the great contrasts between American and Soviet fundamental concepts of human relations, social institutions, and political ethics. Another important point to be stressed is the Marxian (and Soviet) distinction between "socialism" and "communism," for the failure of observers to understand this differentiation is responsible for many current misconceptions regarding Soviet policies. Finally, the avowed aims of Marxism are clearly and bluntly stated in the works of Max, Engels, Lenin, and Stalin; and these authorities are accepted in Russia as the official guides to the goals of the Soviet state.

(2) *Geographic-Historical.* It is often thought by teachers that the geographic and historical aspects of the study of Russia offer the best chance for exercising complete objectivity both in selection and presentation of material. Not that the teachers expect to find *no* controversial questions in these fields, but they assume—quite logically—that such topics as the area, the international boundaries, and the total population of a great nation are matters of fairly common agreement. They also assume, probably, that the characters and contributions of the reigning monarchs of, say, four hundred years ago have been rather thoroughly explored and evaluated. However, as was mentioned at least once previously in this article, *nothing* concerning Russia seems to be outside the reach of argument, bias, and even frenzied altercation.

Take, for example, the simple matter of the boundaries of the Soviet Union. All Soviet and most American maps show the U.S.S.R. as consisting of sixteen constituent republics, of which three are named Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia. Yet the United States and certain other nations do not officially consider these territories as being a part of the Soviet Union at all! This same difference of opinion also affects the accepted population figure of the U.S.S.R. by more than six million, and the area by some 70,000 square miles. So what is a teacher of geography to teach regarding this topic? Fortunately, the question need not arise in classes on the elementary level: the teacher can present the entire Soviet Union as a unit (using either the 1939 maps or their revised editions) and then relegate the uncomfortable complexities to the history class, where they will rear their ugly heads in

several connections. But the history teacher at almost any level will be having his own problems deciding, for instance, which title is deserved by Ivan IV—"the Threatening," "the Redoubtable," "the Stern," "the Dread," or "the Terrible"—since the Russian appellation of *grozny* permits all these as English equivalents. And even the official arbiters of history in the Soviet Union (who are usually unanimous on such matters) have had their disputes recently over whether this sixteenth-century ruler warrants more credit for unifying Russia than condemnation for mass executions. However, teachers of history are no doubt accustomed to such contradictions, so let us leave them to their own devices, confident in the knowledge that the interpretation of Russian history up to 1917 is child's play compared with the task of explaining the convolutions of the Soviet regime.

(3) *Political*. In discussing the political administrative apparatus of the U.S.S.R., teachers should bear in mind that the entire economic system must also be included. Therefore, while the Supreme Soviet can be compared with our Congress in several ways, the Council of Ministers resembles our Cabinet only in a few formal instances. On the former topic, the teacher can show that the legislative branches of both nations are bicameral in structure, are elected by the citizenry, and are fairly representative of the people as a whole, even if in different ways. In this connection, the fact that both the United States and the U.S.S.R. are multi-national countries can be brought out, since Soviet political administrative units are based to a large extent upon ethnic factors.

The teacher should, however, also describe in detail the many important contrasts between American and Soviet methods of election, the great difference in authority of the respective legislatures, and the fundamental distinctions between a two-party and a one-party system of government. Since the Communist Party is the sole legal party in the Soviet Union, special study should be given to its history, structure, aims, functions, and influence. The Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. is a very complex mechanism which should not be explained to a class without at least a schematic diagram showing its seventy-odd agencies, its various levels of authority, and its "pyramid" of control which places its top offices in the hands of men who also hold high posts in the Communist Party and in other phases of Soviet economy. The monopolistic role of the Communists can be

demonstrated further by means of statistics: although only 3 per cent of Soviet citizens are members of the Party, this small minority occupies 81 per cent of all the 1300 seats in the Supreme Soviet and 100 per cent of the all-union ministries, in addition to most of the executive posts in the leading branches of industry, agriculture, and public welfare. To ignore this point would open the way to serious misguidance of the students regarding the real sources of power and policy in the Soviet Union.

(4) *Economic*. As was mentioned in the first part of this article, Soviet economic potential is second only to that of the United States. Russia is the largest contiguous governmental unit in the world, occupying one-sixth of the entire land area of the globe. The climates of this bicontinental land mass vary from frigid to sub-tropical, and its billion acres of arable land are capable, with proper cultivation, of producing nearly every known foodstuff in enormous quantities. Its timber and mineral resources are conceded to be the earth's greatest. In addition, Russia possesses a population larger than that of any other industrialized nation (exceeded only by China and India), and this population can be mobilized for any type of production more quickly than would be the case in most countries. Thus it is no exaggeration to say that the United States has its closest economic competitor in Soviet Russia.

But the teacher's job is to analyze such matters in *qualitative* as well as quantitative terms. Russia is second to us, yes—then how close a second? So certain additional facts must be brought out in this connection. It has been stated earlier that the Soviet Union out-produced even the United States in a few items during the war; the next step should be to examine the number of items in which we out-produced the rest of the world, including Russia. However, for the post-war era a more important question might be: In what *basic* items can Russia approximate or exceed our own production? What, say, is the prospect of Russia's output of steel (a basic item in both peace and war) equalling that of the United States? If the current issue of a leading American industrial journal is reliable in its statistical comparisons, the 1947 production of steel ingots in the USSR will be a little less than 22 million tons, while that in the United States will be 85 million tons. Such figures indicate that sometimes the "runner-up" might also be listed among the "also ran." This is only one illustration, of course, and the

situation would be different if other items were taken as the basis for comparison, as they should be in teaching an economic unit on Russia. Even at that, Soviet industrial production in its best years has been less than half that of the United States. Insomuch as this status constitutes competition, let us say so; insomuch as it fails to constitute actual rivalry, let us recognize that fact also. However, the alert teacher knows that production figures are constantly changing, and he endeavors to keep abreast of the times.

(5) *Social*. In the broad realm of social relations, the Soviet Union has to its credit many attainments which have attracted the sincere admiration of the Western world, attainments which should not be excluded from any really objective and factual study. First of all, it is an independent nation, self-sufficient to a large degree, and almost impervious to foreign influence. Since this is a situation we Americans regard as ideal for ourselves, we can hardly deny its suitability for other peoples as well. After our vain attempts at compromises with Russia, we may feel that her independence borders upon intransigence, her self-sufficiency upon narcissism, her exclusiveness upon xenophobia. But her almost complete organic unity is impossible to deny.

Furthermore, it is probably just this achievement of the Soviet regime which has done most to revitalize the traditional Russian national pride, and national pride is a quality that Americans usually admire in both large and small nations. We like the stereotype of the indomitable Britisher who carries on for the Crown in far-off lands which he hates, simply because to funk on the job would lower the prestige of England in the eyes of unimportant savages. And we hailed the spirit of tiny Albania's resistance, albeit brief, to the invasion by Mussolini's armies. This national pride in Russia suffered a severe set-back because of the Japanese victory in 1905, and an almost mortal blow through Russia's ignominious defeat by the Central Powers in 1918. The shreds of pride were further tattered by the horrible civil war following the Revolution, the scorn of other nations for the new government, and the economic deprivations of the early 1930's. But the announced accomplishments of the five-year plans, the successful collectivization of agriculture, the rise in material and cultural standards, the recognition of Russia's growing power in international affairs, and finally and most im-

portant, the really heroic fight staged by the nation in the recent war—all these factors have served to restore to the Soviet people that which they had for so long been without: concrete evidence of a former glory they had all but believed was lost. Therefore, regret as we might the boorish cock-sureness of certain Soviet representatives, we should look beneath the surface to understand the sources of such conduct.

In view of Soviet Russia's thirty-year struggle to achieve universal literacy, establish an adequate system of public education, provide widespread health facilities for its people, and abolish race prejudice, we might remind ourselves of the fact that our own nation has accepted these same ideals. It would seem logical that we should sympathize with these efforts and applaud each step toward their successful culmination anywhere in the world. And, as a matter of fact, these are precisely the areas in which American scholars have found most to praise. There are even a few brave souls who have implied that we might learn more from a study of the Soviet system of education or medical care than from research in similar fields in Polynesia. Yet, despite the undeniable American interest in these aspects of Soviet life, and despite the fact that the American public approves these ideals in general, there has been twenty times as much written in this country on Soviet politics as on Soviet public welfare. Is our aim in learning *only* to disapprove and condemn? If this is the case in regard to Russia, we will never achieve that comprehension which many people believe is requisite to the peaceful conduct of our affairs for the next few decades.

LET us not expect, on the other hand, that even a complete understanding of Soviet Russia by Americans will remove all of the numerous differences and barriers between the two nations. Certainly the mere study of Russia will not wrap the world in a bunting of peace, nor will it usher in the era of the brotherhood of man. To be perfectly frank, such study may not even lead to improved relations between our country and the Soviet Union.

What, then, *can* it attain for us? The answer is that it can provide us with many clues to Soviet policies and practices, so that the youth of our nation need not grow up to face world problems armed only with the outworn concept that Russia is "a riddle wrapped in an enigma and shrouded in mystery."

The Comic Book: Friend or Foe of Education?

Dorothy Farthing

COMIC books have met with such scathing criticism from adults that one might think that an end would have been put to them for all time. Yet, despite all criticisms, children and adults alike have taken them to heart with loyal devotion. Statistics reveal that comic books are purchased by 95 per cent of boys and 91 per cent of girls between the ages of six and eleven. Between the ages of twelve and seventeen, 87 per cent of the boys and 81 per cent of the girls are regular purchasers. More than 40,000,000 copies of about 150 comic books are sold monthly. Individual lending libraries circulate current copies to countless numbers. It is impossible to estimate the real reading public of the comic book. As has been suggested, interest does not die out with adulthood. It is reported that during World War II at the post exchanges the combined sales of *Life*, *Reader's Digest*, and the *Saturday Evening Post* were exceeded by comic books by ten to one.¹

Comic books are so much a part of the reading diet of young Americans that it is foolish to rail at them or to ignore them with amused disdain. Rather it is time to appraise the comic book to determine whether it can serve the classroom. Let teachers who wish to meet their students on common ground take some lessons from the lowly comic book.

WHY CHILDREN READ COMIC BOOKS

PROGRESS in the solution of curricular problems has long been slowed by an inability to determine the interests of nine-, ten-, eleven-, and twelve-year-old children. This is

The sale of 40,000,000 comic books a month, and the tremendous circulation through lending libraries and hand-to-hand exchanges, is a matter of primary importance to educators. What do comic books have that we don't have? Miss Farthing, an assistant professor of education in the University of Missouri, gives some answers to this question.

particularly true in the social studies, which are rapidly losing status because of this very fact. Courses of study emphasize either the traditional content of geography and history, or impose something current that is justified on the ground that it is good for children.

No one knows better than the classroom teacher the avidity with which comic books are read and reread. They have an appeal that secures eager attention. Instructors have frequently tried, usually without success, to bar them from the classroom. Instead of allowing comic books to remain merely sources of irritation, instructors might do well to seek the reason for their appeal, and to discover whether or not they offer hints for vitalizing classroom instruction. A critical analysis might reveal additional criteria for the selection and presentation of social studies materials.

TEACHERS who examine comic books will no longer wonder where some of their students acquired extensive information about subjects not studied in the classroom. Few instructors of the elementary grades care to compete with pupils if a grasp of aeronautics is to be tested. Students frequently know more than their teachers about this and many other subjects. For example, details about such matters as jets and rockets, Joe Louis, and the recent Antarctic expedition are so familiar to the average eleven- and twelve-year-old youngsters that they discuss them glibly, even condescendingly, with their elders. Where do children get all this information? They read the comics.

Comic books teach their readers much about the contemporary world, much that is true, and, unfortunately, much that is false or distorted. The publishers of comic books have sensed that children want to know about everyday happenings. An introduction to an idea through the simple, direct story in a comic book sometimes

¹ Coultion Waugh, *The Comics* (New York: Macmillan, 1947). PP. 334, 349.

opens the way to a deep and concentrated study of it. Supersonics, plastics, Chinese nationals, floods, earthquakes, football heroes, global flights, sports, and stories of crime arouse the curiosity of the children. These are only a few of the subjects about which children want to be informed, if the popularity of the comic books is any proof. Children evidently want to be acquainted with their own world and its problems. History in the making, rather than history already made, is a matter of concern to the pre-adolescent. Pupils are genuinely enthusiastic in their response to ideas that give them a perspective on the present. We must face the fact that only in comic books do many children find the information that they desire.

Pupil preferences and needs indicate that at least a part of the subject matter studied in the classroom should be of current interest. The very fact that comics are in magazine form may, in part, explain their appeal. They are, in a sense, "hot from the press." But content alone is not sufficient to explain the popularity of the comics.

COMIC books have repeatedly received condemnation because they demand so little reading in order to comprehend the ideas presented. This alleged evil may be their greatest asset. For some reason, reading has become a fetish. More value has been placed upon the ability to read than upon the ability to grasp ideas. The two are not synonymous. A cartoon or picture will frequently convey an idea in a single glance. Children in the elementary grades and, perhaps, in the junior high school build up the totality of an idea so slowly, as they laboriously add sentence to sentence, that the social studies period becomes a reading lesson instead of one in which many ideas are evaluated and given significance through discussion and other activity.

The simplicity of the comic books is commendable. This judgment certainly applies to

the *True Comics*, as well as to their less desirable counterparts that make no attempt to reproduce true facts. There is absolutely no padding to test the endurance of those interested in the idea and not the literary form. A picture with a short caption frequently creates a complete idea. The direct, concise presentation of subjects in the comic books should be a lesson for textbooks authors and others who prepare materials for classroom use. This factor may point to a condensation, rather than an expansion, of written materials for classroom use. Could it be that long elaborate units at the elementary school level have defeated rather than stimulated interest? Have educators over-estimated the attention span of most children in the elementary school?

Action observed in the pictures is an essential part of the comic books, and an element that educators cannot ignore. When, for example, one compares the treatment of pioneer life given in many of our textbooks with that in a comic book, one is simply astounded at the tedious and boring presentation to which children have been subjected in the past. Comics play up all the dramatic element of this subject. It begins to live.

WE ARE NOT contending that comic books should be substituted for textbooks. If, however, one believes that the content of comic books has genuine appeal for children, it would seem advisable to use them as a point of reference in the selection and preparation of content that will vitalize the social studies program. Extended research might provide us with some interesting conclusions.

Comic books are one type of material that children read voluntarily and with satisfaction. Children like them because they are clear, simple, and direct. Children like comic books because they understand them. No social studies teacher can afford to ignore them. She may find that they have more to offer classrooms than mere nuisance value.

Teaching World Civilization: An Approach To Education For World Citizenship

Donald D. Michelson

OF ALL of the social studies there is perhaps no more appropriate medium for educating for world citizenship than the history of world civilization. The study of world civilization is a constant reminder to the Western world of the huge debt it owes to the ancient peoples of the Near and Middle East and the Orient. From the moment the student reads and hears of the remarkable accomplishments of the peoples of antiquity in the arts and sciences, in religion and philosophy, in literature and economics, he begins to realize how great is his debt to the past. He soon sees how closely interwoven is world culture, how man progressed largely to the extent that nations and peoples exchanged their cultures. It dawns on the student that European man was an utter barbarian until he was introduced to the five-thousand-year-old cultures of the East. And if the study is effective the student gains at length a healthy respect and abiding sympathy for all of the peoples and races of mankind because of the contributions each has made to the general culture of the human race.

PROBLEMS

THE problems inherent in world civilization courses sometimes seem insuperable. The wide scope of such courses often seems more than one human being can manage effectively. Then, too, the time allotted to courses in world civilization is usually inadequate. It is virtually im-

possible to teach such a course in three class periods a week and still give the proper time to discussion, writing, and evaluation. The nature and organization of the textbook, as well as the availability of collateral readings, presents another problem.

Out of some score of college textbooks studied the author has found only one which to him seems to be organized appropriately,¹ and even that one has its faults. Most texts give merely a political history of the Western world, with a sprinkling of cultural history thrown in. Others tend to give a choppy, disjointed, chronological review. All of them are characterized by their oppressive bulk. They not only awe the average freshman but they give him little time for the outside reading the hopeful instructor usually requires.

But even with the best textbook available the instructor is often confused over the approach to make. Should he use the purely historical approach, or should the history of world civilization be handled as an "appreciation-type" of study? And if he should choose the latter, does he have the background in the humanities, languages, arts, and sciences to interpret acceptably the vast panorama of the evolution of human culture? In too many colleges there is an almost fatal tendency to "farm out" these vital courses to inexperienced and preoccupied graduate students. The teaching of world civilization is a challenge to the ingenuity and scholarship of even the best prepared and highly experienced teacher.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING WORLD CIVILIZATION

IN HIS efforts to solve some of these problems, the author has devised a procedure that has brought him a measure of success. On the basis of this experience the following procedure in

This paper was read at the St. Louis meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. Although the author is concerned with the specific problems of the junior college course, high school teachers of world history should find much to reflect upon in his comments. Mr. Michelson is chairman of the Social Studies Division at the Austin Peay State College, Clarksville, Tennessee.

¹T. Walter Wallbank and Alastair M. Taylor, *Civilization Past and Present* (New York: Scott, Foresman, 1942).

teaching courses in the history of world civilization is suggested:

1. Organize the material into approximately seven divisions of human culture, offered in three main chronological periods.
 - a. Example: History 101 (Fall Quarter), from Prehistoric Times to the Age of Feudalism.
 - (1) Topics: Religion; Science and Invention; The Arts (architecture, painting, sculpture, music, drama, the dance); Language, Literature, and Philosophy; Economics (agriculture, trade, commerce); Government, Law, and Politics; Social Life and Customs.
 - b. Continue through with the same topics in the next two chronological periods: History 102 (Winter Quarter), from Feudalism to the Age of Industrialization; History 103 (Spring Quarter), from the Age of Industrialization to the Contemporary World.
 - c. Each topic is developed chronologically within each of the three given periods.
2. Provide the following learning exercises:
 - a. Deliver highly animated lectures three times a week, and provide for one hour quiz section a week for small groups.
 - b. Provide students with detailed outlines of the lectures.
 - c. With the lectures use as many visual aids as possible; such as: maps, charts, slides, filmstrips, and films, if available.
 - d. Provide a large chronological table in the classroom to help the students keep historic continuity.
 - e. Select a well organized textbook, and prepare a bibliography for outside reading.
 - f. Prepare study questions based on lectures and assigned reading in textbooks, and use as a basis for preparation for quiz sections.
 - g. Assign special oral and written topics to be presented in quiz section.

- h. Use a well organized syllabus containing lecture outlines, study questions, bibliography, and textbook assignments.

WEAKNESSES IN THE SUGGESTED METHOD

IT IS NOT implied that any one method or procedure affords a panacea for the teaching of world civilization. The plan outlined here has been followed by the author for several years, and certain weaknesses must be admitted. For one thing, there is no textbook available that is organized for the topical approach described above. This tends to make more difficult the use of the textbook adopted, even though the syllabus helps to direct the study. Because there is danger that the student will lose track of chronology when major emphasis is made on cultural achievements, care must be taken to preserve the proper chronological perspective. Finally, the vastness of the subject leaves the student with little time for effective outside reading.

ADVANTAGES IN THE SUGGESTED METHOD

BUT the advantages found in this particular topical method seem to outweigh the disadvantages. First and foremost of all, the student studies history with the emphasis on the evolution of human culture as the end-product of history. He learns that what matters most are the achievements and contributions of the leading ethnic, language, and religious groups of the human race. The student concerns himself with the broad sweep of cultural attainments rather than the narrow chronicling of isolated events. Since seven topical units are studied, the student is introduced to each major nation, race, or people at least seven times each term. Thus a form of repetition is set up that should be highly conducive to learning. Finally, this repetition and emphasis on the cultural contributions of different peoples creates an awareness of the greatness in others, and sets up admiration and sympathies highly desirable for the potential citizen of the world.

In the past the liberal arts college has stressed the history, arts, and institutions of Western culture, without giving much time or attention to the kinds of civilization that exist in other parts of the globe. In the new world it is not enough to know and understand our own heritage. Modern man needs to sense the sweep of world history in order to see his own civilization in the context of other cultures. *Higher Education for American Democracy. Volume I: Establishing the Goals.* A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Washington: U. S. Gov't Printing Office, 1947. P. 17).

Developing Critical Thinking

Julian C. Aldrich

IN THE fall of 1945 the social studies department of the School of Education of New York University decided to undertake a basic reorganization of its required introductory courses. The basic objective was a program of general education in the social studies, with major emphasis upon skills in critical thinking. The first year (1945-46) the department planned a program; the second year (1946-47) two "pilot" courses were conducted by two staff members; the third year (1947-48) the lessons learned are being applied to seven sections under seven staff members. It is now planned to extend the program, beginning in the fall of 1948, to most of the freshmen and sophomores (seven hundred a year).

The program may be described in terms of the assumptions underlying it:

1. Purposes must be defined as progress in critical thinking.
2. Scope must be outlined as areas within which critical thinking may be done.
3. Classroom procedures must provide opportunities for critical thinking.
4. Materials must be selected to contribute to critical thinking.
5. Evaluation of student growth (including marks) must describe progress in critical thinking.

PURPOSES

AS THE staff of the social studies department tried to identify the purposes that should guide its teaching, it found that different members argued the importance of objectives such as knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behavior (action). After weeks of discussion, the social studies department agreed on the following statement of purpose:

One of the most stubborn curriculum problems at the college level is the introductory course in the social sciences. In this article, presented last November at the St. Louis Convention of the National Council, the author, an associate professor of education, discusses an experimental program now being conducted at New York University. Many features of this program can be adapted to the social studies curriculum of the secondary schools.

General education in the social studies should help students to acquire a social-minded, effective, world outlook, developed by:

1. An understanding of man's institutional groups and their interaction;
2. An evaluation of different groups and cultures and one's relation to them;
3. Skill in learning, thinking, expression, and action; and
4. Practice in and for effective social and civic participation.

This statement is sufficiently brief to stand before each staff member as a guide to teaching. To be functional, it must be broken down into specifics of behavior. This was done for each of the four categories of purposes. The understandings were stated as knowledge functional to critical thinking; the attitudes expressed contributions to cooperative group thinking; action purposes were directed toward the implementation of the skills of critical thinking.¹ The core of the program was the definition of "skill in learning, thinking, expression, and action" into specifics, their illustration, and their study. To achieve this purpose, the department said, the student should have:

1. Ability to solve problems
 - a. by defining problems,
 - b. by identifying feasible courses of action,
 - c. by collecting and interpreting information,
 - d. by reaching tentative decision based on sound inference, and
 - e. by acting in accordance with the decisions made.
2. Ability to apply the results of learning.
3. Ability to evaluate his learning and thinking.
4. Ability to express social data in oral and written form.

Each of these abilities was to be illustrated, taught, and evaluated. Although formulated by the staff, this purpose, it was emphasized, would be achieved only as the students and faculty made it their joint aim. Hence a portion of each course would be devoted to the consideration of purposes. The statement made, moreover, was merely tentative, subject to modification and extension by teacher and students to meet the needs of the class and community.

¹ The work of the department is described in Julian C. Aldrich, "A Social Studies Department Studies the Curriculum," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 20 (May, 1947) 537-544.

ORGANIZATION

THERE was some dispute in the faculty of the social studies department over the organization of the general education course. One group argued for organization by social functions, or social processes, or persistent problems of living. The other group argued for organization by bodies of knowledge. It was finally agreed that if scope were defined as knowledge, the opportunities for critical thinking would be limited to academic problems, usually removed from the interests of young people. Scope, then, was defined in terms of persistent problems of living, and twenty "problem areas" were outlined as centers around which to focus the subject matter and activities of the class. These twenty "problem areas" were grouped as follows:

- Group 1: The worker in modern industrial society
 - Government and the individual
 - Conservation of human and material resources
 - Public opinion
- Group 2: World political cooperation
 - Government and business
 - Apportioning the national income
 - Racial and religious tensions and conflicts
- Group 3: World economic cooperation
 - Effective urban and rural life
 - Inflation and deflation
 - Migration and population
- Group 4: Formulation and expression of a philosophy of life
 - Challenges to capitalism
 - Colonies in the modern world
 - Nationalism and sovereignty
- Group 5: Dependency and social security
 - Development and control of atomic energy
 - Centralization of government
 - Education for the modern world

The question of sequence was next considered. The staff judged that there was no necessary sequence; under some conditions this might be decided by the students and teacher. Expediency, however, required: a) some delimitation of problem areas for each part of the course (two- or four-hour segments); b) some flexibility, so that there would be opportunities to select problems which seem vital to the class; and c) some differentiation of problem areas studied in terms of maturity of thinking involved. The problems chosen for the first part of the course should be ones around which there is a great deal of data about which critical thinking could be done. Group 1 was chosen as a combination of problem areas interesting to young people, with the further assumption that these problems were likely to reappear frequently during the next several years. They were to form the "subject matter"

of the first part of the course. Here there was to be great emphasis on the essentials of critical thinking, so this segment would be the prerequisite for the rest of the course.

The staff decided that Group 4 should serve for the study of the highest thought processes: the challenging of major premises, the development of a philosophy of life. The problems in this group were to serve as a "final" segment of the course. Groups 2 and 3 were problem areas which would serve for the development of advanced skills in critical thinking, based on the essentials developed in the first segment, and leading to the skills emphasized in the last part. Group 5 was listed as "spare," to take care of the possibility that a class might want to go beyond the four problem areas assigned to each two-hour segment of this course. It was assumed that in the eight-hour course about eight problem areas could be dealt with, or a selection of about two from each group of four.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR CRITICAL THINKING

SOME of the problem areas appeared as subject matter in previous courses, yet the staff felt the skills of critical thinking had not been developed. An analysis of class activities which have contributed to problem solving seemed to indicate that lectures and group discussions are usually not conducive to critical thinking. Truly to think demands that there be no "right" answer "in the back of the book."

Professors and teachers have a right to respect their own judgments. But to teach students to think demands that opportunity be given to study the process of making judgments. Lectures, then, make proposals for study, offer theses to examine, and present data to be tested. Group discussions are held to develop a consensus, to clarify a point of view, or to plan study and research. Individuals and small groups need the help and guidance of the instructor in the process of critical thinking. Knowledge of the individual student becomes a necessity, not a pleasurable pastime. The conference becomes more important than the lecture.

The integrity of the class period is sometimes lost. If individual or small group conferences are in order, the instructor may meet students of the class for two hours or more, but there is no formal "class." If the teacher and the class decide that a conference with resource people (the leaders of a union, for example) will supply needed data or statements of assumptions, the class may meet at the place of business of such people (the union

hall, in this example) instead of in the classroom. On occasions, those working on similar problems will compare data, assumptions, and conclusions. There may be the equivalent of four or five small "classes" meeting in the same (or different) rooms.

MATERIALS SELECTED TO FURTHER CRITICAL THINKING

IF purposes are defined in terms of critical thinking, if scope is outlined as areas within which thinking must be done, and if class periods are activities in problem solving, then conventional text materials have serious limitations. In the first place, data are already selected, usually without describing the criteria for selection. Facts and opinions are stated as true, and twelve years of school instruction have not lessened the students' deference to the text. In the second place, the questions raised by texts are screened by the author or authors used. Many writers are sensitive to academic problems and to some immediate problems. But the stimulation of students is often left to "suggested readings" at the ends of chapters. In the third place, conclusions of texts are "loaded" since they appear in selected or "approved" sources. A statement by a textbook author referring to the "packing" of the Supreme Court is subversive of clear thinking.

The faculty of the social studies department is seeking a new type of material of instruction. It prefers a library method, but the numbers to be handled suggest that much of the basic work must be done through materials in the hands of students. It has been suggested that texts might be prepared which would avoid the limitations referred to above. At present a compromise solution is being tried. For the problem areas this year a student guide has been prepared, a file of pertinent pamphlet material has been collected, and the resources of the libraries have been organized for supplementary study.

The student guide represents a new departure in text material. Its purpose is to combine method and content. The first one was prepared by the department for the problem area, "The worker in modern industrial society."² In terms of this area, the student learns how to see and define a problem. He sees that problem analysis is more than lesson studying, that social problems involve controversy, and that there are ways of defining and analyzing problems. He goes through the process

of outlining problems in the problem area.

Next he turns to the analysis of the problems seen in the preliminary study. He sees what materials are available on his questions, and learns how to read and challenge them. He identifies logical and emotional appeals, and applies principles of consistency and authority. This analysis he develops through a study of the problem area, using his preliminary outline as a guide. He prepares blueprints for data collection and data interpretation.

Lastly, he is guided through the process of drawing conclusions. He sees various levels of concluding. He learns to present facts in an ordered way, to make judgments about data, to make decisions as to action to be taken on judgments, and to challenge major premises. Each of these parts of the process is illustrated by materials from the problem area of the worker in modern industrial society.

A rich library of material readily available to seven hundred students would be sufficient to direct teacher and student to critical thinking about problems. In this particular student guide, however, there is an attempt to supply a core of material for study and class analysis. The readings included are chosen to overcome the limitations of conventional material mentioned above. A variety of conflicting data are included, different points of view and different levels of expertness are given, conclusions are identified by author, and source materials are presented with the discussions of the significance of the documents. About half the material deals with present controversies over union organization and regulation, wages, prices, and profits. The readings are referred to directly in the guide to problem solving, and the student uses these materials to begin his study and analysis. From these he is directed to fuller treatments and to specialized studies, and individual and group studies are planned. Not only the University library is utilized; specialized collections are used, and community resources are exploited.

The faculty of the social studies department is not convinced that this is the answer to the preparation of material for student use, but finds that it contributes directly to critical thinking, whereas the traditional textbook material encouraged mere lesson learning. Other approaches will be tried, the relation of the material to problem solving will be examined, and an attempt will be made to solve this problem of instructional materials. The evaluation of learning in terms of problem solving will aid in this solution.

² Department of Social Studies. *The Worker in Modern Industrial Society: A Students' Guide* (New York: New York University Bookstore, 1947).

EVALUATION OF STUDENT GROWTH

ALTHOUGH the purposes of instruction, the scope of the subject, and the materials of instruction may contribute to critical thinking, most of the values would be lost if the evaluation of student progress were in terms of facts remembered rather than the process of problem solving. Although we may assume that critical thinking will result in the learning of more facts than the traditional subject-centered method permits, basing marks on recollection of facts will result in an emphasis on memory rather than on thinking. Evaluation of student growth (including marks) must describe progress in the specifics referred to above under purposes of instruction.

Some of the aspects of thinking may be judged by objective tests, such as those developed in the Eight Year Study and in the work of the Center for Human Relations of New York University. These include recognition of problems, interpretation of data, application of principles, and recognition of statements supporting generalizations. Others, such as those developed as a part of the Iowa Every-Pupil Test, judge ability to distinguish between fact and opinion, reading of graphs, maps and tables, and recognition of source and secondary materials. Other aspects of thinking may be judged by samples of written work prepared by the students. The outline of the problem will show skill in preparing an outline, in problem definition, and will show increased knowledge of the interaction of social, economic, and political groups. The blueprints

prepared by the students will show skill in identifying feasible courses of action, in locating sources of information, and in maintaining a critical attitude. The summary of individual and group study and research will show skill in collecting and interpreting information, the use of sound inference, ability to apply the results of learning, and skill in expressing data in oral and written form.

The social studies department is preparing tests to evaluate such progress in critical thinking. Interpretation-of-data tests, which proved reliable in the Eight Year Study, have been prepared for each of the problem areas. Check lists for describing problem-solving skills are being prepared; and tests of functional knowledge, and of study and research skills, are being prepared.

WEEKLY departmental meetings where methods and materials are discussed critically serve to direct the attention of the staff to the basic problem of education—the improvement of the teaching of critical thinking. Purposes are rechallenged as the group works on evaluation. Materials are discussed, and methods are examined. To teach critical thinking has required a reconstruction of the curriculum and a reorientation of the staff. The lessons learned are being applied to the whole offering of the department, from the introductory courses in general education to the graduate seminars for doctoral candidates.

Ability to think and to reason, within the limits set by one's mental capacity, should be the distinguishing mark of an educated person. The conception long prevailed in our Western tradition that Latin and Greek, mathematics, and formal logic were the most effective instruments for developing the power to think. These disciplines can be made to contribute richly to that end, but so can many others. Development of the reasoning faculty, of the habit of critical appraisal, should be the constant and pervasive aim of all education, in every field and at every level.

Higher education has sometimes seemed to proceed on the assumption that the student can acquire in college all the information about all the subjects he may need to know and use in later years. It has stressed the absorption of as many facts about as many things as possible.

More to the purpose and of much more lasting effect would be emphasis on the student's acquiring familiarity with the processes of inquiry and discovery. Insofar as education is not indoctrination it is discovery, and discovery is the product of inquiry. Arousing and stimulating intellectual curiosity, channeling this curiosity into active and comprehensive investigation, and developing skill in gathering, analyzing, and evaluating evidence—these should constitute the primary job of every teacher from the elementary grades through the university. The open and inquiring mind and the habit of rigorous and disciplined investigation are the marks of freemen and the sinews of a free society (*Higher Education for American Democracy. Volume I: Establishing the Goals. A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Washington: U. S. Gov't Printing Office, 1947. Pp. 57-58.*)

Student Participation in School Government

Mildred Riley

DURING the past four years I have been sponsor of the student government organization of the senior high school in Springfield, Missouri. It has been a rich experience, but one that has confronted me with numerous problems. For the solutions to these problems I have searched educational literature, consulted other sponsors, and evaluated my own experience. Although I do not pretend to know all the answers, it might be helpful to share some of my conclusions with other teachers interested in civic education.

WHAT DO WE MEAN BY PUPIL PARTICIPATION?

STUDENT governments defy easy generalization. Throughout the nation we find many different types of programs, serving many different purposes, operating through various organizational forms, and called by various names. We hear about pupil participation, school council, self-government, student government, student council, and student cooperation. All of these, however, spring from the basic concept that in a democratic school it is the right and responsibility of the student body to share in the solution of some of the problems of the school. Under what name or by what means of organization this sharing of responsibility comes about is of secondary importance. In his pamphlet, *Student Cooperation*, Earl C. Kelley states that "Almost any school government works where people have genuine concern for one another and where students are considered as people."¹

"The dominant purpose of a student government program is to secure growth in responsibility and confidence in the effectiveness of the democratic process," writes the student government sponsor at the high school in Springfield, Missouri. In this paper, presented at the St. Louis Convention of the National Council for the Social Studies, Miss Riley discusses her experiences with a project that is vital to effective civic education.

HOW DOES STUDENT GOVERNMENT FUNCTION?

THE type of organization that is set up in a particular school, and the nature of the constitution that is adopted, must meet the needs of the school. Obviously, it would be futile for a school to adopt a plan or organization just because it had proved successful elsewhere. But because all student organizations have certain elements in common, it is possible to point out certain principles that are well worth the consideration of all groups interested in the subject of student government.

In the first place, since the student council represents the entire student body, each student should take an active part, either directly or through his representative. In the second place, it is important for students to distinguish between policy-making and the execution of policy. They should understand that it is the right of all students to share in the formulation of policies, but that efficient execution requires the services of those leaders who demonstrate their efficiency to the satisfaction of the group. In the Springfield high school we have no eligibility rules for those seeking office. The students themselves insist upon a high level of performance from their elected officials. We, teachers and pupils alike, believe that our student government provides good civic training. The student body learns to choose good leaders. And those who are chosen to serve their classmates learn to fulfill their responsibilities.

It is well, as we have learned from experience, for the student council to have the power to charter and supervise other student organizations. With this power at its command the council can help to unify the entire extra-curricular program of the school. We have also discovered that one of the most effective ways to improve pupil morale is for the student government to hold a forum for all interested students whenever a

¹ *Student Cooperation*; a Report of Student Government in High Schools. (New York: National Self Government Committee, Inc., 1941), p. 19.

vital issue arises. There are other projects that the student council can handle—assemblies, school parties, noon-hour recreation, and the orientation of new students, to mention only a few. Student participation in the organization and administration of these and related activities has brought a richer and happier atmosphere to the high school in Springfield.

Participation in community projects is another important aspect of education that is all too frequently neglected because the students are too busy within the four walls of the school building. We must remember that in both World War I and World War II many communities were amazed at the energy, ability, and enthusiasm demonstrated by youths of school age. This same energy, efficiency, and idealism should certainly be directed in times of peace into some form of community service.

HOW DO WE SECURE SUCCESSFUL STUDENT PARTICIPATION?

TO SECURE effective student participation, the student organization must, above all else, be worthy of the respect of the entire student body. This respect will be forthcoming if students feel they are represented, if their opinions are sought and acted upon, and if they are kept fully informed of the work of the council. Each pupil in the school must understand the purpose of his student government. Each pupil should be aware of his own relation to his government. Without this understanding, boys and girls will think of the student government as an organization quite apart from themselves whose function it is to solve school problems, thereby relieving the majority of the students of all responsibility.

It is equally important for all the teachers to understand the aims of the student organization, and to give it their full cooperation. Backed by such support, the students find their task much easier and far more exhilarating. To illustrate this point, I cite an example from our experience in Springfield. Handicapped by the lack of an activity period, the students find it difficult to meet for purposes of government. The faculty has helped to solve this problem by permitting students to be excused from classes once a week to attend the meetings of their own House of Representatives. Faculty faith in the importance of the program, a faith revealed by deed as well as by word, has made a deep impression on the students.

One word of caution needs to be sounded in regard to the relations of the student council and

the staff. Nearly as disastrous as indifferent teachers and administrators are those who want to use the students to further adult objectives. For example, it seems extremely doubtful to me that monitor systems and student courts originated with the boys and girls. In order for the student council to be meaningful, it must undertake projects that seem important to the students themselves. And, while a certain amount of responsibility for the handling of administrative details provides good training, an undue amount of time must not be spent in this way.

Perhaps most important of all is the attitude of the school administration. Without the wholehearted support of the administrative authorities, neither the students nor the faculty can hope to build a functioning democracy within the confines of the school walls. In this respect, Springfield high school has benefited greatly from the position taken by its principal. Mr. C. Benton Manley has frequently stated, both privately and publicly, that he is happy to have the students assume just as much responsibility as they are capable of carrying out. These statements, coupled with the inference that the students have already proven themselves capable of assuming a great deal of responsibility, have given the boys and girls renewed confidence and much incentive.

Not least important to successful student government is the sponsor. This is a subject that I can discuss only in a subjective way. I have learned much from personal experience. It is highly important, and I stress this point, to develop a spirit of give-and-take between the sponsor and the students. I am glad that I have been allowed to spend half my time in student government work, although I am convinced that the sponsor should be free to give his full time to this task of civic education. I am also glad that in my undergraduate days I had sound training in a business office, for my duties often resemble those of an executive, and even more frequently those of a filing clerk. I wish that I were a skillful diplomat, for there is much need for diplomacy in the office of a sponsor. I wish that I knew more about lots of practical things, such as successful advertising, or how to decorate a gymnasium for a Christmas party.

THERE are, as I have also learned, certain responsibilities that a sponsor must assume. I try, for instance to help the students to think for themselves rather than to impose my own thinking upon them. I encourage them to make their own decisions. It is, indeed, important to

permit them to make little mistakes, for only in this way can they learn to assume responsibility. At the same time it is important to protect them from major mistakes that would impair their confidence in themselves and in the democratic process. I have discovered how important it is to train each new group of leaders, not only in parliamentary procedure, but in the intangible essentials of successful leadership. I have also discovered the importance of building confidence in those who lack confidence, of deflating—at least a little—those who are over-confident, of reminding students to stop and evaluate a finished project before they rush on heedlessly to the next task. I do not do any of these things as skillfully as I wish I did, but my students teach me much, and I hope that I can always keep on learning.

There is one other element essential to a successful program of student government. Training in pupil participation should be a process that develops throughout the entire school life of the boy or girl. There should be a certain degree of unity and continuity in all the schools of the system. Student participation should not have entirely different standards at different levels. A city-wide council makes for greater understanding and unity.

FINANCING STUDENT GOVERNMENT ACTIVITIES

THE question of finances is one of the perennial problems discussed in student council conventions, large and small. Of two things I am convinced: first, the primary business of the student council should not be the making and spending of money, and any money-making project that absorbs most of the council's time and effort should be discarded; second, there are many worthwhile services that the council members can provide for the convenience of the students, such as a canteen or store for the sale of school supplies. In my opinion, however, it is dubious practice to create an artificial demand for cheap pennants, caps, buttons, and other school paraphernalia merely to enrich the student government treasury.

When it is found practical to have an activity ticket in the school, this should be administered by the council, and the council should receive a specific allotment of funds for specific services rendered to the student body. I am glad that the millennium has not come, and that school boards are not yet prepared to provide funds for this phase of the extra-curricular program. The experiences that come to students through raising and spending money, budgeting, keeping track

of bank balances, and maintaining an accurate record of accounts can be of inestimable value to them.

IS A PROGRAM OF STUDENT GOVERNMENT WORTHWHILE?

IMPLICIT in all that has been said is my own faith in the value of student government. I am convinced that it is vastly worthwhile both to those whom we are training for responsible leadership in our society, and to those whom we are training to be cooperative followers. The dominant purpose of a student government program is to secure growth in responsibility and confidence in the effectiveness of the democratic process. As Earl C. Kelley states, "Student participation offers an excellent method for giving pupils a habit of mind that will consider the public business a matter of interest to the private citizen." And when a sponsor watches an individual student or a group of students grow through the school year in confidence, in ability to get things done, and in regard for the interest of others, he is rewarded with a feeling of pride and satisfaction for all the efforts he has put into the task. As teachers, we cannot overlook the fact that many leading universities and colleges now examine a student's extra-curricular record about as closely as his school marks, knowing that this contains many clues to his future success or failure.

HOW DOES STUDENT GOVERNMENT CONCERN THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER?

AT Springfield high school the most important branch of the student government is the House of Representatives, which is composed of students elected from the social studies classes. The representatives conduct a weekly discussion in their own classes, submitting to the vote of their classmates any questions that were brought up at the last House meeting. During the subsequent session of the House each representative presents the suggestions and viewpoints of his constituents, and casts his vote according to the majority decision previously reached in his room.

The strongest links in our system are those social studies teachers who are sympathetic with the student government program. Upon their shoulders falls the responsibility for arousing in the boys and girls an awareness of the fact that student government is a practical application of the principles taught in the classroom. This point was made clear in a memorandum recently

sent to the social studies teachers of Springfield high school.

"Student government provides one of the experiences by which boys and girls learn to live in a democratic society. It is not accidental that the social studies classes were chosen as the basis for the pupils' representation in the largest body of the legislative branch, the House of Representatives. Participation in the activities of the student government and in its processes of policy formation provide a laboratory for working out the theories of good citizenship that are developed in the social studies classes. Each pupil's

experience with student government must be of such a nature that he will have confidence in the effectiveness of the democratic process which he has studied in his classroom. We do not dare let it be otherwise. The student government does not dare to be just 'window dressing.' The social studies teachers cannot risk creating the situation that will arise if they preach democracy in their classes and pay no attention to its practical application in the school lives of their students. To a large extent upon you and the social studies teachers rests the success of representative government in our school."

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STUDENT COUNCILS

FOR many years student council sponsors and high school principals have asked where they might find materials to aid them in the organization and effective operation of a student council; they have attempted to get new ideas and suggestions for vitalizing their student council activity program; and they have tried to find out what other student councils in other parts of the country were doing and how they are operating. In order to meet these needs, a group of sponsors organized a national association which partially served the councils in a rather limited area. In 1943, so that more publicity might be given to this work and in order that there might be a national clearinghouse for the dissemination of information on student council activities, the sponsors of the original association asked the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to assume responsibility for the work.

This was done in 1944 and the name was changed to the National Association of Student Councils. At the time of the transfer of sponsorship, there were 283 dues-paying members; at present there are close to 2800 members receiving the benefits of national affiliation.

The National Association of Student Councils maintains an office with the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and has a staff which answers questions on any phase of student council work. It also sends out letters and printed materials to councils that need guidance and advice; it provides, without charge, practical assistance in the organization and operation of student councils in the local schools and in the establishment of regional, state, or sectional student council associations. Limited field service is available to schools or administrators who are interested in the formation of one of the larger associations.

In addition to the advisory and consultative service, a number of helpful publications are also made available. *The Student Council in the Secondary School*, published in 1944 as a bulletin for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, has been widely acclaimed as one of the finest and most practical basic handbooks to be found anywhere. *Student Councils Co-operate*, published in 1946, contains practical suggestions for the operation of a council, and lists standards by which a council may judge its usefulness and its accomplishments. *The 1947 Student Council Handbook* contains a discussion of student council elections and an excellent student council project on safety education. In addition to these books, *Student Life*, a 32-page, illustrated magazine written for and largely by students, is published eight times during the school year. All of these publications are sent without cost to members of the National Association of Student Councils, and they may also be purchased by anyone who is interested.

The National Association of Student Councils is a service organization. Student council sponsors and school administrators should feel free to write to the national headquarters for this service. Address letters to: The National Association of Student Councils, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Developing International Understanding in the Elementary School

Helen Horst

CONSCIOUSLY or unconsciously, the elementary teacher has always, to a certain extent, been helping children to understand the people of other nations, their problems, our relations with them, and their relations with one another. Has a real effort been made, however, actually to stress this side of our subject matter? Has the teaching of such understandings not been more or less dependent upon the resourcefulness and social consciousness of the teacher herself, rather than upon a prescribed area of study? In a world so needful of understanding, can such teaching be left to chance? We would not think of omitting instruction dealing with number concepts, and have found the level for such teaching even for the kindergarten group, so that the children may begin early to be conditioned for their part in the economic life of our increasingly complex world. Is there not a more urgent need for conditioning our young folks for meeting the problems that can be solved only through understanding, coöperation, and mutual regard among people and nations? Such understanding must include familiarity with different ideologies, as well as with social and economic conditions that create tensions among nations and among groups within nations. They must also include a knowledge of the bonds that draw people together. These would include language, music, art, religion, literature, and others.

THE IDEAL

TO WHAT extent has our educational system helped in promulgating the apparent philosophy of materialism which too often over-

shadows the humanitarian impulses? Are we, as teachers, and the texts we use, too prone to emphasize the largest city, the greatest merchant fleet, the best highways, the finest network of airlines and railroads, the greatest tonnage, the most automobiles, the greatest per-capita wealth in our discussions pertaining to people and countries? Could we not substitute for this ideal of economic success, or at least strive to develop along with it, another ideal—the ideal of cooperative human and international relations based upon a recognition of the dignity of the individual, no matter what his race, creed, or nationality?

TEACHING INTERNATIONALISM IN THE SIXTH GRADE

PERHAPS it would not be amiss to say that our schools can be blamed not so much for what they have done as for what they have left undone. If this is true, especially in the elementary grades, then it would be well to re-examine and re-evaluate the areas of study, placing rightful emphasis upon things no doubt already there, but whose real significance has never been adequately recognized.

Let us see that our success stories have more to do with these human and international relations. Let us guide our boys and girls in the type of thinking that is dependent upon a greater recognition and appreciation of the problems of others. Are there not definite concepts that must be stressed if this younger generation is to meet more adequately the adult problems that are increasingly concerned with international affairs? Let us face this atomic age realistically and be forthright with our young people. Their strength now and in the future lies in the wisdom that comes from understanding. Many of these understandings can be gained while they are in the elementary grades.

The social studies program for the sixth grade in the Superior schools offers many oppor-

The author of this article, a sixth-grade teacher in the Nelson Dewey School of Superior, Wisconsin, gives some practical suggestions for teaching international understanding.

tunities for the development of international understandings. The very nature of the areas studied, consisting of all of the European countries and their possessions, Africa, and the Near East, plus the very impressionable and prejudice-free group with whom the teacher works, places her in a most strategic position. Much can be done, however, to guide her so that she may present the desired understandings in the best way possible. The global war, the airplane, and the radio have forced the attention of even young children upon the outside world. Social studies and the natural sciences have been motivated as never before. How have these opportunities been utilized?

During the past year several opportunities for teaching international understandings presented themselves. We made use of a number of these opportunities.

1. We have become acquainted with many of the great world citizens and their contributions. Those from Europe included Louis Pasteur, Madame Curie, Wilhelm Roentgen, Fritz Kreisler, Paderewski and many others. Knowing about them has surely helped to draw us all closer to their particular countries. Surely it has helped us to appreciate that human needs are the same in all countries—the love for music, for literature, for art, or the need for the discoveries of the great scientists. Here was an opportunity to appreciate the fact that much of the best that the outside countries have produced has been available to us in the United States. How much richer life has been because these people have lived and shared their work with us! Our bulletin board with its pictures as well as articles about these world citizens proved an interesting activity.

2. Music has also brought us greater appreciation and understanding of other countries. We have learned several songs of the countries studied. These songs have expressed the thoughts and emotions of the people. They have reflected their gay moments and their more serious moods. How like our own we found them! Rimski-Korsakov's "Dance of the Tumblers" made instant appeal. A clown and his antics is understood in any language! The lovely Czech carol, "The Christmas Quail," drew us closer to that part of Europe. "Sweet Centa" from Italy expressed something familiar to all. These and many other songs made us realize that we had much in common with other countries.

3. The study of Canada gave us an opportunity to appreciate what international friendship can mean. Here was a friendship that extended over

a period of many generations and serves to strengthen the hope that all nations may come to enjoy the benefits of a similar understanding with one another. The class liked particularly such outward expressions of friendship as the International Peace Garden, located partly in Manitoba and partly in the United States, consisting of many acres of beautiful forest land dedicated to the friendship between the two countries. They liked the fact that once a year the school children of Vancouver met the school children of the State of Washington at Blaine on the international boundary to take part in the ceremony celebrating more than a hundred years of peace between their countries.

4. In the study of the Soviet Union the emphasis was placed upon an ideology that differed greatly from our own. The text gave a clear picture of the condition of the Russian people prior to 1917, and then discussed the changes made by the party in power to improve the condition of the people as a whole. It also listed the many freedoms that are still denied the people. It was, for most of the children, a first encounter with a way of life dependent upon ideas quite contrary to their own. This study made a deep impression, judging from the discussions held, and the comparisons made with our own freedoms.

5. Switzerland, as the home of the former League of Nations, offered an opportunity to stress the attempts that nations have made to settle their difficulties peaceably. Some reference reading was done to further the discussion. The *Weekly Reader* gave us much of the needed information about the United Nations General Assembly, and has kept us posted and up to date on the progress of this newest of international organizations.

6. Denmark and the other Scandinavian countries helped to make clear how people of countries not particularly well favored by nature, have progressed through their coöperative efforts. Needless to say, when compared with the Russian plan for working together, the Scandinavian methods were favored overwhelmingly. The children also appreciated the fair treatment given to the Scandinavian workers, resulting in a minimum number of strikes. They liked the pensions for older people. Here were human relationships that made for happy living. Because of the large number of children of Scandinavian descent in our community, many articles from these countries were brought in and exhibited. Who could not but feel closer to a country when a classmate showing a lovely piece of handwoven material

remarks, "My grandmother in Sweden made this."

7. India was, for us, a study in contrasts that made clear how differences in language, in religion, and in educational opportunities can become great barriers to progress. It was an example of a country beset with tensions. The caste system was a revelation to most of the class. How different was our own country, where a poor backwoods boy such as Lincoln could grow up to hold the highest office in the land! It was difficult to leave the study of India, as so much needed explaining. We did not come to feel close to India. It was just too different to be understood easily or quickly.

8. Germany under a dictator, which is the Germany that these children know most about, needed explaining. Here again, comparisons were made with our own type of government. Our great respect for and loyalty to the Constitution as the firm rock upon which our nation stands was emphasized. The children found the land of the dictator to be the same land that gave us Martin Luther, Mozart, Roentgen, the Grimm brothers, and the lovely "Silent Night, Holy Night." Yes, here was need for understanding.

9. The Zionist Movement, and the tensions existing between the Zionists and the Arabs, was a problem brought out in our study of Palestine. The study of the Holy Land also made the history of Christianity more meaningful. It brought an added appreciation of a tie that binds together so many people of the world. It afforded a richer background for the Christmas season, with greater understanding of the Christmas story, the carols, and the pictures equally beloved by so

many nationalities.

10. Britain was an example of a nation largely dependent upon things from the outside world. We learned that all countries are more or less dependent upon one another—that what happens in one country directly or indirectly affects others—that it does matter to us what happens in other parts of the world. This interdependence of nations was stressed during the entire year. Even the study of foods in a unit in science revealed this interdependence of peoples.

11. The study of modern inventions, such as the radio and the airplane, made clear that the nations have been brought together more closely than ever before. It was not hard to understand that it is becoming increasingly difficult, if not impossible, for nations to remain indifferent to the problems of other nations. Here again, as among families in a wholesome neighborhood, the Golden Rule must be practiced by all the nations if the world is to be a fit place in which to live.

SUCH things as these we chose to emphasize. The areas mentioned are not necessarily recommended as the best ones for developing international understandings but they do show that almost any subject offers opportunities for helping children to reach a clearer understanding and appreciation of other peoples. More important is our recognition of the fact that children of the sixth grade can and do understand the significance of coöperation, friendship, loyalty, freedom, tolerance, and interdependence in human relations in the home, school, community, nation, and world.

A recent survey of public opinion revealed that one out of three people in the United States still does not know what the United Nations is and what it does. The same study showed that only one in five knows what is meant by the veto. . . .

We learned during the recent war that every household, every farm, every village, and every business is deeply involved in the great problems of peace and security for the solution of which we have established the United Nations. These same problems, and the efforts to meet them in the United Nations, therefore require intelligent attention in all of our schools, our churches, our civic, business, and social organizations—wherever, in fact, citizens gather to discuss their vital interests.

We Americans must obtain a clear understanding of the role which we ourselves are called upon to play in the United Nations. We must understand the roles which others are playing or are failing to play. We must continually remind ourselves that the United Nations succeeds or fails according to the conduct of the members themselves and their willingness to act in accordance with the Charter. We must become familiar with the terms of the Charter. I think this might well be included in the curriculum of our high schools and colleges (Address by the Secretary of State, "Faith and Fidelity: American Pledge to the United Nations," delivered before the American Association for the United Nations at New York, September 14, 1947.).

Notes and News

New Contributing Members

Many names have been added to the current roll of Contributing Members of the National Council for the Social Studies since the list was last published in the November issue of *Social Education*. These members have paid \$5.00 for their annual dues instead of the \$3.00 subscribing membership fee, although there is no difference in the privileges of such membership. This extra financial assistance is of great value to the Council in carrying out its program in the face of greatly increased operational costs. The officers and directors wish to express their appreciation to these contributing members for their help. Including their current renewal, the following have held contributing membership for the past *five* years: Elbert W. Burr, Mae Drescher, O. L. Enstad, R. O. Hughes, Erling M. Hunt, Clifton B. Worthen. Contributing members for the past *four* years: W. Linwood Chase, Denoyer-Geppert Company, Philo C. Dunsmore, Grace Ewy, Eleanor Florance, Robert C. Gillingham, I. James Quillen, William B. Thomas. Contributing members for the past *three* years: Walker Brown, Merl R. Eppse, Clarence Fielstra, Lavone A. Hanna, Florise Hunsucker, P. A. Knowlton, J. B. Kuhler, R. H. Porter, George H. Slappey, H. C. Thomas. Contributing members for the past *two* years: Louis Armstrong, Beth Arveson, Everett Augspurger, Chester D. Babcock, Ralph Adams Brown, Irene Burkowske, Henry De Young, Mary E. Eyre, William H. Fisher, Kenneth Fulkerson, Ruth Wood Gavian, John H. Haefner, Roscoe F. Haining, Margaret MacElfatrick, Ethel Mathews, Ethel Ray, Donald G. Schein, P. W. Slocum, Cyril L. Stout, Bessie L. Thompson, Lewis Paul Todd, Bethania Tucker, Lawrence Vander, Margaret West, J. Richard Wilmeth, Dorothy Woodward. New contributing members: Louise Brown, Edward J. Burke, Jarvis E. Bush, Martha C. Caccamo, O. M. Dickerson, Glenn A. Evans, Ethel E. Ewing, Robert LaFollette, Russell E. Fraser, Joseph B. Hillyard, Florence Kasiske, Dupo Community High School Library in Illinois, F. J. McMahan, Dorothy McMurray, Anna V. MacNabb, John J. Mahoney, W. E. Oswald, Fanny H. Phillips, Erma B. Plaehn, Donald W. Robinson, James F. Robinson, Sister Joseph Mary, Elizabeth Spargo, Harriet Stull, Ruby L.

Thompson, Harry C. Thomson, Elva Tucker, John B. Tucker, Sharon S. Ulrey, Irene Zimmerman.

Middle States Council

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will hold its spring meeting in Washington, April 23 and 24. Morris Wolf, president of the MCSS, is arranging the program, which will continue the theme started at the fall meeting in Atlantic City: "Teaching Youth the World Responsibilities of Americans." Discussion groups representing the various areas in the MCSS will report what they are doing in their schools. Marjorie Clarke, Langley Junior High School, is in charge of local arrangements.

P. O. C.

Twenty-Eighth Annual Meeting, NCSS

Plans are moving ahead for the Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, to be held in Chicago, November 25-27, 1948. The Palmer House will be the headquarters hotel and will house all meetings and the exhibits. NCSS members will be interested to learn that the National Council of Geography Teachers will also hold its annual meeting at this same time in the Palmer House and that an opportunity will be provided for NCSS members to attend sessions of the NCGT. Likewise, NCGT members will be invited to attend the sessions of the NCSS.

The NCSS program chairman is W. Francis English, of the University of Missouri. Members are urged to participate in the planning of the program by sending suggestions as to program topics or speakers to Dr. English. Hazel Phillips, Argo Township High School, is chairman of the Local Arrangements Committee.

Twenty-Ninth Annual Meeting, NCSS

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold its 1949 meeting in Baltimore, Maryland, November 24-26. Headquarters will be at the Lord Baltimore Hotel. Baltimore extended an invitation for the 1949 meeting to the Board

of Directors of the NCSS at the meeting in St. Louis. Harry Bard will serve as chairman of local arrangements.

Nashville Council

The Nashville (Tennessee) branch of the National Council for the Social Studies holds monthly dinner meetings at George Peabody College. The group is a cooperative effort supported by Peabody College, the Nashville City Schools, and the Davidson County Schools.

The November meeting was on *Social Conditions in Mexico*. The Speaker, Milton L. Shane, based his remarks on observations made during his stay in Mexico City for the summer of 1947. Dr. Shane directs the summer school classes which Peabody College sends to the University of Mexico. The December program was a round-table discussion given by the six members who attended the National Council Meeting in St. Louis.

The officers for 1947-1948 are Jack Allen, George Peabody College, president; Carolyn Perry, Dupont High School, vice-president; and Nora Lee Bernard, East Junior High School, secretary-treasurer.

N. L. B.

Gary Council

During the 1946 convention of the Northwestern Section of the Indiana State Teachers Association, under the guidance of Russell G. Anderson, the nucleus of the Gary Council for the Social Studies was formed. The Social Studies Teachers of the Gary Public Schools met on February 24, 1947 to organize the Gary Council for the Social Studies. Approximately forty-one teachers attended this dinner meeting and, together with several administrators, became charter members of the Council. Later, a constitution was drawn and adopted, and the Gary Council for the Social Studies became affiliated with the Indiana Council for the Social Studies and the National Council for the Social Studies.

The Gary Council has sponsored several functional programs, among them a panel discussion on "Classroom Techniques in the Social Studies." Participants—staff members from the Laboratory School, University of Chicago—were Dorothy Merideth, Kenneth Rehage, Thalia Tarrant, and Elbert Burr.

At the October, 1947, Northwestern Teachers Sectional meeting of the Indiana State Teachers Association, the Gary Council held a luncheon

meeting. Robert LaFollette, Ball State Teachers College, spoke on "Peace Is Our Job." At the business session, the Gary Council voted unanimously to send Emma Bertha, local president, as a delegate to the National Council convention in St. Louis.

A report of the St. Louis meeting was presented at the December meeting by the GCSS President, Emma Bertha. Highlights from various convention addresses stressed the importance of educating American youth for responsible participation in activities of a local, national, and world-wide nature. One of the outgrowths of these reports was the plan for re-evaluating the social studies curriculum in the Gary Public Schools in order that an over-all picture of what is being taught at each grade level from kindergarten through senior high school might be gained. These reports were to be presented by teachers of the various grade levels at a meeting early in February.

Shirley N. Engle, president of the Indiana Council for the Social Studies, has invited a member of the Gary Council for the Social Studies for committee work on "Social Studies Textbooks" and on "Constitutional Revision of the Indiana Council."

The officers for the 1947-48 school year are president, Emma Bertha, Tolleston School; vice-president, Ida B. King, Roosevelt School; secretary, Virginia Stoner, Lew Wallace School; and treasurer, Gertrude Graham, Froebel School.

E. B.

Discussion Guides

Price Controls—Shall We Restore Them? Marshall Plan for Western Europe, Shall We Admit Europe D.P.s? Is Universal Military Training Essential to Our Security? are some of the current titles in the *Platform* series discussion guides prepared by *Newsweek*. Teachers may obtain free copies of these discussion guides by writing to the Club and Educational Bureaus of *Newsweek*, 152 West 42nd Street, New York 18.

Intercultural Relations

A committee on intercultural education of the Baltimore Public Schools has prepared a booklet entitled *Better Intercultural Relations*. This illustrated booklet contains suggestions for developing basic understandings, outlines both in-school and out-of-school activities, and includes suggestions as to sources of material on this topic. Copies may be purchased from the Curriculum Bureau, Department of Education, 3 East 25th Street, Baltimore 18, Maryland, at 25 cents each.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

American History

The result of a survey of the status of research and teaching of American history in colleges and universities has been published in pamphlet form: Edgar Eugene Robinson, *Scholarship and Cataclysm; Teaching and Research in American History, 1939-1945* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, price not known). This report is built around certain basic assumptions. It recognizes that "to insist that it [history] includes everything that man has thought, said, and done, even on a single continent, or among one people, is to invite the conclusion that there is no longer 'history,' for it is thus beyond the comprehension of any historian. Yet even to insist that 'history' is beyond the comprehension of the citizen is obviously to invite disaster to a people." Furthermore, the report states, "Though the tribal tradition of primitive men is converted by civilized men into 'history,' all are dependent upon antecedents for the preservation of society."

Professional historians are not handled with kid gloves, as witness the following:

Yet during the past decade in the United States among professional historians, too little attention has been given to the need of constant reinterpretation of the national history. In fact, American history, as the story of a people transferring a highly developed civilization to an undeveloped wilderness, taking a vast continent and building rapidly a continental self-governing society—this highly comprehensible chapter in the story of mankind has been obscured by the overspecialization of recent historical scholarship.

The programs of the American Historical Association at its December meetings during the years of war have been examined for the light they may throw on recent outlooks and research in American history. Commenting on the fact that the December, 1941, meeting was the only normal one held during the period of our war participation, those who prepared this report have examined that program most thoroughly. "It was notable," we are told, "that such familiar topics as 'Sectionalism,' 'Agricultural Frontiers,' 'The West and the Civil War,' and 'The Republican Party in the South' appeared, but 'Economic Control in Time of War,' 'Present Conflict of Ideas,' 'Europe's Early Outlook upon America,'

and 'Entry of the United States into the War of 1917' were new."

A section on "Publication" comments on the appearance of *The Journal of Economic History*, of Volume XXI, Supplement One, of the *Dictionary of American Biography*, of the *Dictionary of American History*, and of the *Album of American History*. Several outstanding works of scholarship that appeared during these years are briefly noted. Examples of increased interest in "historical thinking" are found in *The Interpretation of History*, edited by Joseph R. Strayer, and *The Development of Frederick Jackson Turner as a Historical Thinker*, by Fulmer Mood.

Commenting on the increased interest in subject matter, the pamphlet notes that:

Interest in subject matter had been expressed in different parts of the country, most of all in some of the published discussions of the matters at issue. In California the teachers of American history in colleges and universities had met in August of 1942 at Stanford University, and a Committee of Fifty had been set up at the end of this conference to continue consideration of the subject matter of American history and possible means of better co-ordination of history as offered at the various levels. Subsequently, committees of junior college teachers and of high school teachers were brought together, and this Committee of One Hundred gave attention to subject matter and co-ordination. At Stanford University there was established, in January, 1943, an Institute of American History designed to further studies in the subject matter of history and in interpretation.

Perhaps the most pregnant observation, for those interested in the future of historical scholarship and teaching, occurs under the sub-heading of "The Outlook for Scholarship."

A basic reason for this cleavage between scholarship and teaching in American history is that we accept theoretically but deny in practice the fact that, in the profession of history, research and teaching are for the most part a joint enterprise. Although the historian "teaches" history as the physician "practices" medicine, yet in most instances the historian has not *thought* of teaching as the physician has *expected* to practice. The consequences of this paradox are clearly seen. The professional historian is a research specialist rather than a teacher. The teachers, particularly in the colleges, are therefore virtually outside the profession. And yet the scholar depends upon the teacher to consume the product of his craftsmanship. Such chaos in the medical profession would imperil the national health!

And again:

Yet, the basic weakness of the profession of historical

scholarship is the misdirected application of "scientific method" to the materials of history. The social scientists in trying to gain the respect of natural scientists have confused exactitude with truth. Exactitude is not synonymous with truth. In a scientific age, history has turned away from the conceptions of "value" which have been so painfully accumulated by man in his long struggle toward civilization. But in contenting himself with mere observation of the record, the historian has succeeded in achieving only such certainty as is characteristic of the most elementary processes in the investigations of natural science.

Finally:

In this age of crisis, scholars professing a knowledge of American history are faced with a responsibility as grave as that of physical scientists. While upon the American continent it is possible for a scholar to forsake "scholarship" for "research," the Soviet Government is writing its own history of the world for the children of Russia. The sources found acceptable for this history are meager. The reasons are clear. Is there, however, any less bias in antiquarianism? Not to make it our business to examine the experience of the American people in terms of its great themes, and to teach these themes throughout the nation, is to invite other disciplines to do our work, or to turn it over to "the people," who will embrace "mythology" if history is not available.

The great themes are not outworn. To dismiss the "political record" as unfruitful is to dismiss our experience in self-government, which has been our gift to the world. It could easily be forgotten. Little enough is known of our political processes and their underlying psychological bases. Too little is known of the process by which a mature and brilliant civilization was transferred from Europe to America, here to undergo a unique development. The significance of local history is lost if it is unrelated to the conquest of a formidable continent. The rise of economic organizations can be understood only in relation to the growth of free enterprise in a paradise of natural resources. The history of social classes is comprehensible only in the light of the gigantic struggle between the sections of the nation with their differing economic and social bases.

We have learned from each totalitarian group in Europe in the present century the tragic results of abandoning insight that has slowly and with measureless effort been acquired in the process of building "civilization." Americans have had for three centuries the unparalleled experience of creating a new society in a new world. The story of this experience needs retelling in the light of events of the past half-century. Will the scholar rise to the occasion and unite with the teacher in presenting that story to the rising generation of Americans?

China

Headline Series Number 67 of the Foreign Policy Association is Lawrence K. Rosinger's *Forging A New China* (22 East 38th Street, New York 16. 35 cents). This 65-page pamphlet is divided into four main sections: "China Meets the West"; "The Struggle for Unity"; "China's War for Survival"; and "Victory Without Peace." There are also a series of tables showing the extent of America's post-war aid to China. The

author is Far Eastern expert of the Foreign Policy Association, has been a lecturer on Chinese history at Columbia, knows China at first hand, and is the author of many books and pamphlets on the Far East. The pamphlet maintains the high level of accuracy, organization, and readability that teachers have come to expect from this series.

Cooperation

Cooperatives in School and Community: A Teacher's Guide (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 90 cents) is an 80-page guide of unusual interest and value to teachers in junior and senior high schools. As the foreword notes:

There is an increasing demand that in training our future citizens the school give more attention to current problems of country life. Their implications for a nation striving to preserve the privileges of democracy in this atomic age must be better understood. No boy or girl can be considered fully educated for intelligent citizenship unless he or she knows something about cooperatives, their history, purpose, organization, and present-day methods of operation.

The pamphlet has three main divisions: (1) cooperatives in community life; (2) how schools are teaching about cooperatives; and (3) helps for teaching about cooperatives and a Wisconsin resource unit. Of especial value in this last division is a 15-page section on "References and Sources of Information."

Civil Rights

To Secure These Rights; The Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights (New York: Simon and Schuster, price not known) is a 175-page, paper-covered booklet of interest to all social studies teachers. The Congress of Industrial Organizations, 718 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., has a limited supply of copies that will be sent free to interested teachers. If you wish a copy get your request in early.

President Truman appointed a Committee on Civil Rights on December 5, 1946. The Committee held a series of public hearings at which the spokesmen for interested groups made statements and were questioned. They also heard some witnesses in private meetings. A number of staff studies were made for their benefit, and a large number of communications were received from interested private citizens and organizations who were anxious to help. Their report covers "a broad field and many controversial matters." It is divided into four main sections: the American

heritage: the promise of freedom and equality; the record: short of the goal; Government's responsibility: securing the rights; and a program of action: the Committee's recommendations.

The citizen may be most concerned with the implications of the final section. Social studies teachers, on the other hand, will find much valuable classroom material in the first three.

Armed Forces Talk

Three more issues of *Armed Forces Talk* have reached us. Consult recent issues for address and price:

#207—*Our Motives in Aiding Europe*

#208—*How Is Our Foreign Policy Developed?*

#209—*The United States Merchant Marine.*

European Recovery Program

The Department of State, Washington 25, has a supply of an extremely valuable 130-page pamphlet: *Outline of European Recovery Program: Draft Legislation and Background Information*, submitted by the Department of State for the use of the senate Foreign Relations Committee, December 19, 1947. The pamphlet contains five sections: (1) proposed legislation for a European recovery program; (2) explanation of proposed legislation for a European recovery program; (3) essential elements of proposed United States support for a European recovery program; (4) commodity requirements of European recovery and the cost of United States assistance; and (5) United States Government organization and administration for a European recovery program.

Social Action

The December 15 issue of *Social Action* (Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York 10. 15 cents each, \$1.50 per year) is William F. Stinespring's *Palestine: Land of Hope and Trouble*. Mr. Stinespring is a professor of Old Testament at Duke University. He has spent several years in Palestine. In commenting on the difficulties involved in preparing material on the Palestine problem he notes:

So violent are the passions and prejudices generated by the Palestine controversy that any attempt to present the

material objectively will call forth maledictions from one side or the other. My concern with Palestine comes from a life-long interest in its archeology and its religious heritages. Hence I feel that the present struggle is only a phase of a long history, and that the Arabs, the British and the Zionists all have their claims, and all have made their mistakes in bringing the situation to a rather low political level. I believe that each party has tried to do what is right and I sympathize with the suffering endured by all.

An interesting addition to the pamphlet consists of two brief comments on Mr. Stinespring's article: "Comments: From a Christian Zionist," by Carl H. Voss, and "Comments: From a Jewish Anti-Zionist," by Lessing J. Rosenwald. There is also an annotated reading list.

Georgia's Citizens

So many requests have come to the Georgia Citizens Council from other states for copies of its guide to the establishment of community coordinating councils: *United Citizen Action to Improve Georgia's Human Resources* (Atlanta, Ga.: Georgia Citizens Council. 25 cents), that the Council has decided to make them available to non-Georgians.

Outstanding national authorities in the field of community organization, such as Wayne McMillen of Chicago and Lyman Ford of Community Chests and Councils, have, I am told, termed the guide excellent. Quantities of the booklet have been used in Texas, Kentucky, and North Dakota.

The Family

The latest pamphlet issued by the Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 39th Street, New York 16, is #135, *Broken Homes*, (20 cents) by George Thorman.

This pamphlet is of the high quality that social studies teachers have come to expect from this series. Perhaps the most important thing about it is that it is to be a unit in a series of ten or twelve Public Affairs pamphlets all dealing with various phases of family relations. Those previously published, in addition to #135, that deal with this general area, are: Evelyn Millis Duvall, *Building Your Marriage, Keeping up with Teen-Agers*; George Lawton and Maxwell S. Stewart, *When You Grow Older*; Herbert Yahraes, *Planning Your Family*.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

Copies of the October, 1947, *News Letter* with its excellent article, "Using Films for a Purpose," may be obtained at two cents per copy from the Bureau of Educational Research, 13 Page Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio.

The Cleveland, Ohio, Public Library will send teachers a leaflet called "Guideposts to Peace," listing books, magazines, and films on this topic.

Don't miss *The Presidential Year*, recently released by The March of Time. It reviews political conventions and campaigns since the time of Theodore Roosevelt.

Students and teachers of American history will find the current theatrical film, *Captain from Castile*, a most stimulating experience. The picture was photographed in technicolor on a Mexican location. The costuming of Cortez and his Conquistadors among the Aztec Indians is well worth seeing. This film will undoubtedly create a great deal of interest in the Spanish conquest of the New World.

Recent 16-MM Sound Films

Academic Film Co., 113 West 42nd Street, New York 18.
Ben Franklin's Albany Plan. 10 minutes; rental: apply. A re-enactment of the Albany Congress of 1754.

American Viscose Co., Box 864 G.P.O., New York 1.
Science Spins a Yarn. 25 minutes, color; free. Development of artificial silk industry with an explanation of the process employed.

Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.
How to Make Handmade Lantern Slides. 21 minutes; rental: \$4.00. Shows the construction and use of lantern slides on all levels of education.

Bell Telephone Co. (Contact your local company.)
Party Lines. 17 minutes, color; free. The necessity of sharing many of our conveniences with our families and neighbors is shown in a puppet film.

Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19.
The World Is Rich. 43 minutes; rental: \$6.00. Deals with the world food situation today. The United Nations' measures formulated in the Food and Agriculture Organization are dramatized and the plan drawn up by the F.A.O. for the permanent improvement of farming throughout the world is described.

A Day at the Fair. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Tells the story of three farm youngsters as they go to the state fair. They exhibit their cattle and pigs and have fun on the midway.

Our Soil Resources. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. What soil is and how cultivation by man affects soil. Major scientific farming techniques designed to replace soil fertility and stop erosion are portrayed.

Using the Bank. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Explains the various functions and services of a bank by allowing close observation of its principal activities.

The Doctor. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Develops an appreciation for the significant role of the medical doctor in modern life. Follows a child specialist through a typical day at his office, at the hospital, and at the home of a patient.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Coal Crisis. 22 minutes; small service fee. A film emphasizing the importance of coal to the future of Britain. The legacy of labor difficulties and the problem of attracting miners back into the industry are fully discussed.

The Cumberland Story. 46 minutes; small service fee. A story of a mining engineer who succeeds in opening up a seaward seam of coal, and how the miner has profited by the experiment.

Pattern for Peace—Charter of the United Nations. 15 minutes; small service fee. Explains the charter of the United Nations with its points of construction and the many problems with which it is confronted.

International Film Bureau, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago 1.

English Inns. 8 minutes; rental: \$1.50. The camera takes the audience into a village where an English inn serves as a cultural meeting place and a link in transportation and communication.

The Story of Money. 16 minutes; rental: \$2.00. The evolution of modern currency, from barter to banking, is explained in simple terms.

Land for Pioneers. 14 minutes; rental: \$2.50. A picture of the resources and industrial development of the North, from the search for gold to the search for uranium.

Leslie Films, 127 West 94th Street, New York 25.
Culture of the Past. 10 minutes; sale: \$25. A vivid pictorial description of the art and life of Pompeii, its gardens, baths, heating and plumbing systems as they were in the days of long ago.

Oyster Fleet. 10 minutes; sale: \$25. Explains the activities of the Chesapeake Bay oyster fishermen.

Princeton Film Center, Princeton, New Jersey.
Treasure from the Sea. 30 minutes, color; free. A Walt Disney cartoon showing how magnesium is extracted from sea water.

A New Frontier. 20 minutes, color; free. The development of the oil industry in Scandinavia.

Spare that Tree. 15 minutes; free. Forest conservation through a new barking process.

Mainline. 20 minutes, color; free. The story of the work of the American railroads.

The Magic of Coal. 20 minutes; free. The everyday life of the coal miner at work and at home.

New School Atlas

"What geography teachers have been waiting for!" This statement well describes the new *Denoyer's School Atlas*, an inexpensive, light in weight (8 ounce) atlas designed to be placed in the hands of each pupil. It contains 32 pages of fully colored maps, 30 pages of map-reading suggestions, and an index of 5000 place names. A physical-political treatment is provided for all important areas, and four large double-page spreads of Canada, Eastern United States and Cuba, the Mediterranean area, and India to Japan. These large studies should be of great help in developing geography consciousness. This atlas sells for \$1.35 for a single copy and \$1.08 each for 20 or more. It may be purchased from the Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235-59 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40.

Radio and Television

"Network television is on the way," according to CBS. Coast-to-coast hookups are not many years away. Recently Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington stations were tied in with New York and Boston by co-axial cables for a test broadcast. With this network the coming national political conventions in Philadelphia can be made visible to a network television audience from Massachusetts to Virginia.

The latest addition to radio's news coverage is CBS's "News of America" (9:00-9:15 A.M., EST). This Monday to Saturday review of rapidly changing developments as reported by key cities throughout the nation should be interesting and valuable to all classes in current affairs.

The CBS program, "Invitation to Learning" (Sunday, 12:00-12:30 P.M., EST), will consider the following books during March: March 7, Alexis De Tocqueville, *Democracy in America*; March 14, Ellen Glasgow, *Barren Ground*; March 21, Woodrow Wilson, *The New Freedom*; March 28, Roger Williams, *The Bloudy Tenent of Persecution*.

Consult your local NBC station or newspaper for time and day of the weekly half-hour series, "Doctors Today." Presented in cooperation with the American Medical Association, these programs tell a series of exciting stories about the search for new means of improving health and increasing the span of life.

Recordings

The United States Office of Education is currently lending schools and colleges recordings

of the widely-acclaimed CBS documentary program on juvenile delinquency, "The Eagle's Brood." The recordings may be used in public school address systems, classroom presentations, auditorium programs, and the like. They may not be used for broadcast purposes. There is no charge. To obtain a recording, write Radio Transcription Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

Problems of Democracy teachers studying labor relations may be interested in an album of *CIO Union Songs*. Included are "Solidarity Forever," "We Shall Not Be Moved," "Union Train," "Roll the Union On," "Hold the Fort," "Which Side Are You On," "Union Maid," "On the Line," and "We Are Building a Strong Union." Copies of the album are \$7.50 from CIO Department of Research and Education, 718 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Free and Inexpensive Materials

Phonograph Records and Their Use in a School Library, by Della W. MacBean, is a leaflet of value to all teachers who use recordings. It has some pertinent things to say about the evaluation of records. Copies are free from Row Peterson and Co., Evanston, Ill.

A copy of the New Mexico "Recreation Map" may be had by writing to New Mexico State Tourist Bureau, Room 1115 State Capitol, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

How to Use the Chalkboard is an 8-page booklet containing usable ideas for day-by-day teaching. It is free from Weber Costello Co., Chicago Heights, Ill.

A Bibliography on Audio-Visual Instructional Materials for Teachers in the Elementary School is published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27. The price is 50 cents.

An album on *The Presidents of the United States* with a set of full-color postage stamps of the presidents is free from the Union Pacific Railroad Co., 1416 Dodge Street, Omaha 2, Nebraska.

"How the American Dream Gained Color" is a poster which is free from H. J. Heinz Co., Pittsburgh 30, Pa. It describes the settlement and development of New Mexico.

What Has Been Written About Junior Town Meeting? is a bibliography which is free from Junior Town Meeting League, Columbus, Ohio.

The teacher whose class is studying Canada may obtain valuable source material from the Information Office, Canadian Embassy, 1744 Massa-

chusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. The available material includes a 260-page illustrated handbook entitled *Canada, 1947*. This official book contains a large colored map of the Dominion, as well as a large number of pictures and charts. Another aid which may be had from the same source is "Fact Sheets" on Canadian geography, history, population, industries, resources, and climate. These sheets are illustrated with black and white maps.

Helpful Articles

- Aughenbaugh, B. A., "Color, Sound and Stills in Educational Films," *Audio-Visual Guide*, XIV: 13-14, January, 1948. The author, in a most stimulating manner, discusses the contributions which color, sound, and stills make to educational films. Well worth reading.
- Burkholder, Marguerite, "Let's Create Good Will," *American Childhood*, XXXIII: 12-17, January, 1948. Journeys to many countries taken by a group of nine-year olds through the use of globes, maps, pictures, lantern slides, victrola records, and movies.
- Dale, Edgar, "The Why of Audio-Visual Materials," *The News Letter*, XIII: 1, December, 1947. A clear-cut statement of the importance of utilizing the products of the revolution in communication methods to enable us to make the industrial machine understandable to the people who run it.
- Dunham, Franklin, "New Hope for FM in Education," *The Nation's Schools*, XLI: 53-54, January, 1948. How new low-cost transmitters bring broadcasting within the budget of small school systems.
- Gaffney, Helen Sheehan, "Happy Landing Airport," *The*

- Grade Teacher*, LXV: 39, 75, February, 1948. An intermediate-grade, table-top project, complete with plans and directions for constructing a model airport.
- Jackson, E. Bernice, "More About the Flannelgraph in Teaching Reading Readiness," *The Grade Teacher*, LXV: 26-27, 70, February, 1948. The use of flannel cut-outs which are moved about as the story or lesson progresses. The idea is a good one for primary-grade social studies.
- "Materials of Instruction," *Educational Leadership*, V: entire issue, January, 1948. A series of practical articles dealing with all types of teaching materials.
- Morlan, George K., "Movies and Mental Health," *The Journal of Education*, CXXXI: 21-22, January, 1948. A discussion of several current theatrical films and their possible effect upon mental hygiene.
- Palmer, Charles, "Educators and Film Producers Need Better Understanding of Mutual Problems," *Social Management*, XVII: 44-45, January, 1948. The need for films which fit into and make more effective the teaching on all grade levels.
- Palmer, C. V., "It's a Snap for San Jose Teachers," *Educational Screen*, XXVII: 15-16, 34, January, 1948. The use of school-made, 2 x 2 inch color slides in teaching about the community.
- Seay, Maurice F., "Community Resources Are Teaching Materials," *The Social Executive*, LXVII: 33-35, January, 1948. How the school and the community both benefit when teachers discover, develop, and use community resources.
- Sorenson, Clarence W., "Filmstrips in a Geography Program," *Educational Screen*, XXVI: 545, 549, December, 1948. Describes the program being worked out cooperatively by Silver Burdett Company and the Society for Visual Education.

GROUP LEADERSHIP CONFERENCE

The Second National Training Laboratory in Group Development sponsored by the National Education Association and the Research Center for Group Dynamics and with the cooperation of several universities will be held at Gould Academy, Bethel, Maine, from June 14 to July 3. This Laboratory offers the opportunity for action leaders, educators, and social scientists to cooperate in an experimental approach to problems of training and action research. Basic skills of human relations and techniques of stimulating group growth and productivity will be analyzed, tested, and practiced.

Delegates are being selected from among administrators, supervisors, trainers, consultants in social science, counselors, teachers, and organizational leaders in the areas of education, industry, government, labor, agriculture, community work, social welfare, and other professions and fields of action.

The February issue of the *Adult Education Bulletin*, Department of Adult Education, National Education Association, is a special issue containing six important articles describing techniques of planning and conducting work conferences. These articles contain some of the results from recent research in the important field of conference planning.

For further information and application blanks write to Leland P. Bradford, Division of Adult Education Services of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D.C.

Book Reviews

THE WORLD'S HISTORY. By Frederic C. Lane, Eric F. Goldman, and Erling M. Hunt. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1947. Pp. xii, 781. \$3.20.

All too frequently the tenth-grade world history course requires little more than an outline treatment of the story of mankind. Equal emphasis is given the personal culture and the civic content materials and, as the body of historical material expands, there is decreasing time for reading, discussion, and the drawing of parallels between the past and the present.

The authors of *The World's History* have made a significant contribution to the improvement of instruction in the secondary-school world history course, for their book is one that makes intelligible and meaningful to high school students the major forces that have shaped our world. By selecting *only* those concepts that contribute to improved pupil understanding, the authors have "told the story of how the world as a whole, with its many peoples, environments, civilizations, religions, and nations, came to be what it is." The book is unique in its "four-river approach" to the study of world history, and in using this means of orientation it provides that much-needed emphasis on the Indian and Chinese civilizations. Commerce, conquest, and migration take on new meaning for the student who, in using this textbook, comes to understand that these forces were instrumental in changing and spreading the civilizations of the four river valleys.

The ten unit divisions illustrate the scholarly discrimination that was exercised in selecting only those materials that contribute to an understanding of the present. The wording of the titles of the unit divisions illustrates how effectively world history can be interpreted as a story of movement and change: (1) Civilization Begins and Spreads; (2) The Ideal of Citizenship Is Formed; (3) Religions Take Leadership; (4) Classes Divide the Societies of the Old World; (5) The West Takes the Lead; (6) The West Divides into Nations; (7) Democracy Grows in the Western Nations; (8) Natural Science and Machinery Transform Society; (9) Imperialism and Imitation Spread Western Ways; (10) The World Fails in Using Western Civilization and Gets Another Chance.

The authors have achieved a simplification and

clarification of these units by developing with considerable detail a limited number of carefully selected examples. For example, in a study of nationalism the student learns about six factors of nationalism as they influenced the development of France, Germany, Italy, England, and the American nations. Progressing to a study of democracy, science, and industrialism, the student re-examines these same nations, thus assuring far greater breadth and depth of historical understanding.

The brief treatment of the Reformation, Old Regime, and Reign of Terror may disappoint some, but space saved here is given over to significant and much needed materials on world religions, Russia, the Near East, the Orient, and the United Nations.

The World's History excels in its superior maps and charts. Map detail is carefully selected and correlated with content materials. The three colored maps, "The Centers of Early Civilizations," "The Spread of Civilization in the Old World," and "The Westernized World," are illustrative of how effectively maps can serve as aids to learning. Equally effective are the black and white maps and time lines that precede each unit division and serve to make functional the time and place elements in history.

Teachers and students will welcome the excellent chapter summaries and the sections called "class preparations," which, appearing at the end of each chapter, lead the student into the next topic. A long-needed distinction is made between study and discussion questions. The discussion questions are particularly noteworthy for the emphasis made on the drawing of parallels. Supplementary readings are graded. Activity suggestions are for the most part repetitious and inadequate.

The writer recommends *The World's History* as a basic yet sufficiently flexible textbook that can be used in a variety of teaching situations. It is a book that makes a real and much needed contribution to the improvement of instruction in world history.

ELLA C. LEPPERT

University High School
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JAPAN PAST AND PRESENT. By Edwin O. Reischauer. New York: Knopf, 1946. Pp. xiv, 192. \$2.00.

The efforts that Americans have made to guide the reshaping of Japan during the occupation have both energetic defenders and bitter critics. The defenders, led by General MacArthur himself, claim that the Japanese are making satisfactory progress toward a democratic and peace-loving way of life; the critics maintain that Japanese "cooperation" is but a false front behind which the Japanese continue in their militaristic and imperialistic ways of thought. Both sides appeal to the lessons of Japanese history and to an analysis of Japanese "national character" to support their views, to the confusion of the mass of intelligent Americans who want to understand the Japanese and our effect upon them.

Dr. Reischauer's book has the special timely value of presenting for "the average educated reader" a short, very readable interpretation, of Japan's history, which emphasizes those factors in Japanese development that are especially significant in trying to assess Japan's future. On the whole, Edwin O. Reischauer belongs to the optimists. He is concerned, throughout, to combat

the false conception of the Japanese as a nation of facile but shallow imitators. It is true that at various times in their history the Japanese have sought eagerly for foreign inspiration for techniques and ideas with which to reorganize their national life: in the seventh century and thereafter and again in the fourteenth, they turned to China; in the nineteenth they drew upon the techniques of the West. Yet the Japanese have always managed to assimilate their borrowings, and produce from them a culture which, while related to others, has nevertheless been distinctively Japanese. This adaptability and educability, which the Japanese have demonstrated over and over again, is the best omen of their capacity at present and in the future to learn from the West and put what they learn to their own use.

Dr. Reischauer has produced a work of deliberate and competent popularization: names and dates are reduced to a minimum; comparisons with European and American experience are adroitly used; generalization and interpretation are more conspicuous than "facts." The book is, and intends to be, only an introduction to Japan. Its readers might well go on from it to what is still the most distinguished account of Japan in the

English language, *Japan, a Short Cultural History*, by Sir George Sansom, who has written a complimentary and helpful foreword to Dr. Reischauer's work.

MERIBETH E. CAMERON

Milwaukee-Downer College

CHINA AWAKE. By Robert Payne. New York: Dodd Mead, 1947. Pp. 424. \$4.00.

THE PAGEANT OF JAPANESE HISTORY. By Marion May Dilts. New York: Longmans, Green, 1947. Pp. xvi, 418. \$4.00.

Robert Payne, author of *China Awake*, has given us our first book on life in a modern Chinese university during the tumultuous years of the war. The setting is the city of Kunming, at the end of the Burma Road, where the three universities of Peking, Tsinghua, and Nankai were joined in exile. Cast in the form of a diary, this day-by-day commentary on events and personalities inside China is an invaluable source book for readers who wish to understand the revolt of many Chinese students and professors against the present nationalist government. It gives intimate sidelights on the thinking of Chinese students and

on some of the intellectual currents that were stirring in the minds of Chinese professors. The most valuable sections deal with the author's conversations with well-known personalities in China and his experiences incident to a visit to the Communist region around Yen-an. This book is a vivid chronicle of events by a recognized friend of the Chinese people, written with deep feeling and sensitive emotion, and in a brilliant and moving style. It is highly recommended as supplementary reading for advanced students on the secondary level; others should not attempt it.

Mrs. Marion D. Kopp (née Marion May Dilts) has brought her well-known history of Japan for high school students up to date by revising her last chapter and adding two new chapters on recent events. Otherwise the book remains as written in 1938. Original criticisms of the book as being less than objective still stand, even though the author now recognizes in her new chapters the reactionary tendencies present in pre-war and wartime Japan. The book remains more an apologia for Japan than a critical account of that country's evolution. In the new chapters a clue is given to the style and bias of the author when,

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for example, she says on page 372, after a eulogy of General MacArthur, that "the problem is not how to keep Japan down, but how to keep Japan up." The next sentence suggests the reason for such a policy by quoting the General, as follows, "The Japanese are relying upon the advanced spirituality of the world to protect them against undue aggression." Could the author and the General be thinking of the Soviet Union? Other examples of strong prejudices on the part of the author are to be found both in the old and new sections of the book, but space does not permit further quotations. Students will find the book very readable and persuasive, but teachers will do well to suggest complementary reading for students in other more objective and analytical histories of Japan.

DONALD G. TEWKSBURY

Teachers College
Columbia University

THE LAND AND PEOPLES OF CANADA. By Frances Aileen Ross. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1947. Pp. vii, 128. \$2.50.

This book, one of the Portraits of the Nations Series, is concerned with the geography and po-

litical, social, and economic organization of present day Canada, and with the history of that nation since her discovery and settlement in the sixteenth century. In the introductory chapters Miss Ross discusses the composition—national, religious, occupational—of the Canadian population. The five regions of Canada—the Maritimes, Central Canada, the Prairie provinces, British Columbia, the Northland—are covered separately with particular attention given to the geography and the economic development of each region. The final chapters are devoted to Canada's history, with great emphasis placed upon the political development under the French and English, and the successful struggle for self-government and dominion status. Outstanding Canadian personages are discussed in connection with their specific contributions.

Suitable for junior and senior high school use, this book fills a definite need for accurate, up-to-date material on Canadian government, peoples, and history. The teacher in using it will find it necessary to supplement and clarify to a large extent, as a tremendous amount of material has been included in a very few pages. Despite its lack of bibliography and activity materials, the organization of the volume lends itself admirably



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to use as a basis for the study of Canada. Miss Ross has succeeded in placing before the reader an objective statement of the facts of the major controversial issues facing the Canadian peoples today. The chief value of the book lies in its presentation of Canada's role as an independent nation, active in world trade and politics, facing a future which may well make her a key power among the nations.

GERTRUDE BRAUN

State Teachers College
Danbury, Connecticut

THE ATLANTIC FRONTIER: COLONIAL AMERICAN CIVILIZATION, 1607-1763. By Louis B. Wright. New York: Knopf, 1947. Pp. xviii, 354. \$4.50 (Text \$3.40).

The colonial period in American history has been slighted recently, especially in secondary schools, in favor of contemporary history and problems. It was inevitable with the enlarged study of the twentieth century that some aspects of American development be contracted, and the early period has usually been abbreviated the most. Actually, a strong argument can be made for understanding the significance of the pre-

Revolutionary years in which many of the peculiarly American political, economic, and social institutions originated.

Moreover, this is a period that has attracted the attention of many of the most famous scholars of our history from Parkman, Osgood, Beer, and Becker to Gipson, Nettels, Andrews, Bridenbaugh and Wertenbaker. Dr. Wright has carefully synthesized their research and has also drawn on his own able studies in the period. The resulting book is as remarkable for its compactness as it is thorough in its discussion of the colonial era. The essentials of the period are presented in an informative manner that is well-suited to teachers and students who are unable to pursue the volumes of specialized studies.

Dr. Wright's account traces colonial developments back to the European conflicts and forces that motivated immigration to the New World; it extends to the year 1763 when changed conditions stimulated the tendencies towards independence. In between are five chapters which chronicle progress in the colonies by sections—the Chesapeake Bay colonies, the New England commonwealths, the Hudson-Delaware area, Pennsylvania and the three southernmost colonies. A great portion of these chapters is devoted to a study of the colonial experiences in government. Political history is emphasized with attention to changes in governmental organization and disputes over rights and limitations established by royal authority.

The economic activities and religious beliefs of the different sections are presented in their relation with political developments. There is also valuable information on colonial intellectual interests. Nevertheless, this is not a complete picture of life in the colonies; Dr. Wright is more concerned about relating the distinguishing aspects of the New World from which an American nation evolved. Because of the limitations in the approach, certain shortcomings are inevitable. One of these is the failure to explain American colonial policy in terms of world-wide imperial undertakings.

To the author's credit, however, he has presented a substantial quantity of information on the important aspects of colonial history. His presentation, besides being illuminating, is also engaging. A selection of contemporary maps and scenes from the Huntington Library collection adds to the book's value for teaching purposes.

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GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS IN THE UNITED STATES revised edition. By Harold Zink. New York: Macmillan, 1946. Pp. x, 1006. \$4.50.

AMERICAN GOVERNMENT IN ACTION. By Marshall Edward Dimock and Gladys Ogden Dimock. New York: Rinehart, 1946. Pp. xii, 946. \$4.50.

There was a time when a teacher of American Government was using as a text either a book by Beard, Munro, Ogg and Ray, or possibly one or two others. Since that time there has been a steady, healthy, and wholesome growth in the teaching of this subject, and a consequent proliferation in the number of books available for the purpose.

The organization of the early works was much the same. Each volume was devoted largely to the foundations, structure, and operation of the national government, with a subsequent shorter section on state government, and a chapter or two on local government. Then a new trend developed, leaning towards the so-called "functional" organization of the material. The attempt was to treat the whole American system as a unity. The legislative function, for instance, was taken up in one section, with appropriate descriptions of Congress, the state legislatures,

city councils, and other legislative bodies. These organization materials were followed by chapters on different functions, such as the regulation of business, with a description of the total impact of the different layers of government on each function. William Anderson's books are typical of this trend.

But this, too, was criticized, partly from the viewpoint that the result was still artificial because it was simply a slicing of the subject horizontally instead of vertically, but a slicing nonetheless. On the one hand there was a noticeable return towards the traditional organization, but with more emphasis on function than had existed earlier, and on the other hand a more complete functionalization was sought.

The two books being here reviewed are typical of these trends. The volume by Harold Zink makes the tripartite division in his description of the structure and organization of the three levels of government, preceded by a section on the nature and background of our governmental system, and another section on the bases of our popular rights, citizenship obligations, political parties, and the like. This is a revised edition of an earlier work, and since the first publication

Professor Zink has had extensive contact with government in his capacity as an officer in Europe during the war. It is a scholarly work, dispassionate in its texture, and analytical in its nature. The student will find the format useful, with indented paragraph titles, generous footnotes, and a bibliography at the end of each chapter.

In the introduction the author asserts that he is placing greater emphasis on administration than is often found in similar books. This may account for the sketchy treatment given to substantive due process, the ignoring of certain political party functions, and the omission of evidence tending to show that judicial supremacy was accepted even before the Marbury case. But these are minor criticisms, and give way entirely to special commendations for the emphasis on the obligations of citizenship as well as its rights, and for the excellent insistence at various points on the importance of the role taken by the people themselves in the process of government. A study of mechanics without the spirit is futile.

At the other extreme in the matter of organization is the work by the Dimocks. Here, the functional approach has been carried farther and

more successfully than I have previously seen it. And a new element has been added to the whole, for the authors have decided to integrate some general elementary principles of political science with the specific descriptions of the government system. Thus, the student will have a combination of both, which is particularly valuable where the beginning course is the only political science which the student takes, though it is equally valuable as a foundation for further work in politics.

Teachers and students alike will find certain features especially useful. One habit of the authors is to give a list of numbered points which they are making, and such phrases as "three stages," "four principles," and "eight safeguards" are common. Closely associated with this technique is the giving of at least one specific example under each point, something which is not always done by other authors. The Dimocks have drawn on a very fertile background for the richness of this illustrative material. Likewise, the extensiveness of the vocabulary used will (it is hoped) send the student to his dictionary more than once.

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subjects must be given summary treatment. This is true here, for instance, in the matter of the amending processes of constitutions and charters. It might also be desirable to extend the concept of "democracy" beyond the political, though perhaps that should not be attempted in a volume dedicated specifically to political science. More emphasis on the economic and social aspects of this great ideal is necessary under present conditions, and some students (as well as some legislators) become confused when the focus is exclusively on the political segment.

Also useful are the critical lists of supplementary readings with helpful comments by the Dimocks. Significant, too, is the inclusion of a condensed text of the United Nations Charter, in addition to our own national constitution. Likewise important is the avowed purpose of the authors "to focus the organization and functioning of government on three central problems of our day: how to prevent war, how to produce an expanding economy, and how to create a better social environment." This aim and several others expressed by the authors have been vigorously attacked and successfully achieved.

J. MURDOCH DAWLEY

Fredonia (N.Y.) State Teachers College

ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR. By Herbert A. Simon.
New York: Macmillan, 1947, Pp. 259. \$4.00.

Mr. Simon, Associate Professor of Political Science and Chairman of the Department of Political and Social Science at the Illinois Institute of Technology, has written extensively in the field of public administration. In the current treatise he undertakes to redirect, momentarily, the focus on administration from the usual concept, "the art of 'getting things done,'" to the intricate "process of choice which leads to action." In so doing, he aims at the development of a vocabulary and an analytic scheme through which administrative processes can be described as objectively as are the steps in a research problem in chemistry.

He is not concerned, he states, with the objection that administration never can, or should, become a science in this sense. He is concerned with contributing a tool for the use of those conducting experimental studies aimed at testing the theories of administrative practice.

He points out that "a general theory of administration must include principles of organization that will insure correct decision-making, just as it must include principles that will insure effective



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tive action." In the last analysis, therefore, all administrative decisions must be made in the light of purpose that they are intended to serve, plus "the scientific and practical knowledge as to the effect particular measures will have in realizing these values."

By breaking down many currently accepted "principles" through the test of universal application, Mr. Simon attempts to show that administrative theory should be subjected to critical analysis. He then proceeds to investigate its basic components from the point of view of their influence on decision-making. These he divides into chapters on "Rationality in Administrative Behavior," "The Psychology of Administrative Decisions," "The Equilibrium of the Organization," "The Role of Authority," "Communication," "The Criterion of Efficiency," and "Loyalties and Organizational Identification."

Having confirmed his supposition that currently accepted "principles" of administration "suffer from internal ambiguity and mutual contradiction," and having proposed a basic vocabulary and an analytical scheme, the author concludes his study by outlining the steps which research must now take. These are, first, that adequate case studies must be collected; second,

that techniques must be developed and improved so that the success of administrative arrangements can be evaluated; and, third, present investigations should be extended with the use of the "decisional" outline presented in the book.

This work presents a general description of organization, a break-down of the administrative process, a study of the nature of decision-making, and a detailed consideration of the values and facts involved. For illustrations he has described situations collected from many sources.

The material in the book is interestingly and clearly, if sometimes technically, presented. In reading it, one comes to accept the author's thesis and develops with him the hope that his considerations may lead to a comprehensive study and rephrasing of the doctrines held by administrators trained in today's concepts. Teachers of the social sciences will be interested in the treatment of the place of the individual in the organization and the ways in which the organization modifies his decision-making behavior.

ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS

Cortland (N.Y.) State Teachers College

YOUR CITY TOMORROW. By Guy Greer. New York: Macmillan, 1947. Pp. XIII, 210. \$2.50.

After a brief history of urban planning, the author discusses housing; planning procedures; legal, fiscal, and administrative problems; and plans for metropolitan Boston. He also gives a picture of a possible future city. Part of this material appeared in *Fortune* in 1943 and 1944 while Mr. Greer was an editor.

Mr. Greer is opposed to the piece-meal approach to urban housing problems advocated by the celebrated Park Commissioner of New York, Mr. Robert Moses. The erection of unrelated projects may further aggravate traffic congestions and shift an infected area from one place to another. Specific slum clearance and housing projects must be based on a comprehensive study of the whole community. The author is more enthusiastic about the Wagner-Ellender-Taft bill. He considers it "potentially the most comprehensive and far reaching legislation on housing and community planning ever to be considered by Congress" because it establishes federal housing research, improved financial devices, and state and local government cooperation.

There is an excellent description of the familiar vicious spiral of the over-intensive use of urban land which brings about unorganized decentral-

ization, blight and slums, rising urban taxes, mounting expenditures, and lagging revenues. The many obstacles to community planning are indicated. There is the difficulty of obtaining permissive state legislation, such as was passed for Louisville and Jefferson County, Kentucky in 1942, under the leadership of Mayor Wilson Wyatt. This legislation provided for a joint planning and zoning commission, as well as a joint health department. According to the author, another obstacle is the dependence of cities on real estate taxes. In respect to the support of public education, Mr. Greer suggests that the cost of providing a minimum standard be financed by the federal government without federal control.

The greatest obstacle, however, is the ignorance and indifference of the public. The author makes it clear that the people need an objective appraisal of the problems of their city, information on the planning process, and an account of the benefits to be gained. An example of a successful radio educational program in this field was the series entitled "Syracuse on Trial." This series was prepared in the radio workshop of Syracuse University in 1944.

Another educational device is the prize contest which was used so successfully in Boston in 1944. According to Mr. Greer, such a contest produced "the most comprehensive metropolitan planning program ever proposed in America." Five of the six authors of the winning plan were Harvard faculty men from the departments of architecture, economics, government, and sociology. This is another indication that community planning needs an integrated approach, and that the specialists in the various fields of social studies must pool their knowledge.

This book is written for the average citizen, not for the professional planner. It is recommended for secondary school teachers interested in material for urban housing and planning.

MELVIN J. SEGAL

Michigan State College

CHILDREN OF THE PEOPLE. By Dorothea Leighton and Clyde Kluckhohn. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1947. Pp. xi, 277. \$4.50.

This is a companion volume to *The Navaho* (1946) by the same authors, previously reviewed in this journal. The authors in their preface to this volume compare the two thus: "Each book is a separate study, though the two supplement each other. *The Navaho* deals primarily with the situational and cultural context. *Children of the*

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People deals primarily with the psychological end-product in the individual. While each book stands by itself, two approaches, differently emphasized in the two books, are necessary for the deepest kind of understanding. The Navaho way of life may be learned only by knowing individual Navahos; conversely Navaho personality may be fully understood only in so far as it is seen in relation to this life-way and other factors of the environment in the widest sense. Realization of Navaho culture is dependent upon acquaintance with personal figures, but equally these personal figures get their definition and organization as individuals only if the student is in a position to contrast each one with the generalized background provided by the culture of the People." Both volumes were written as part of the Indian Educational Research Project sponsored by the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago and the United States Office of Indian Affairs.

The primary emphasis in *Children of the People* is upon the early years of the life of the Navaho boy or girl. The quality of the book is to be credited especially to Dr. Leighton whose obvious sympathy is tempered by her professional medical training. Added to this combination is a felicity of expression that makes the book fascinating to read. While *The Navaho* impressed one with its quality as a group study, this volume is warmly human and takes one into the homes of the Navaho.

Easily the most interesting part of the book is that in which Dr. Leighton describes in great detail the life of a Navaho from birth to adult life and death. The narrative is interlarded with quotations from interviews. The result is a convincing group case history.

The latter part of the book reports "investigations carried on in 1942 by the Indian Educational Research project." The investigation consisted largely of an elaborate testing program for 211 children ranging from six to eighteen, all of them residents of the three Navaho communities of Shiprock, Ramah, and Navaho Mountain. The tests were many and varied and they are fully described. This part of the book provides an ex-

cellent example of how to conduct such a testing program, as well as being of great interest in its own right. The book concludes with "Appendixes," including samples of testing experiences. There is also a lengthy bibliography and there is a good index. There are numerous and effective illustrations. The volume maintains the same high standard demonstrated in *The Navaho*.

CARLTON C. QAULEY

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